

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

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The Iliad and Odyssey of Homer, translated into English blank Verse, by William Cowper, Esq. (Continued from p. 249.)

WE objected, in our critique of last month, to Mr. Cowper's assertion in regard to the impeccability of Homer. He is equally decisive, and we think no less improperly so, in regard to himself. 'The English reader is to be admonished that the *matter found in me*, whether he like it or not, is *found also in Homer*, and that the *matter not found in me*, how much soever he may admire it, is *found only in Mr. Pope*. I have omitted nothing: I have invented nothing.' When Mr. Cowper personifies what, in Homer, is merely an epithet, we certainly may consider that personification as *matter not found in Homer*. Ulysses calls a Grecian (Il. ii. 201.) weak and cowardly, *απτολεμος και αναλυς*. In Mr. Cowper it is a dastard and a *drone*. Hector tells the Trojan dames (Il. vi. 297.) that 'woe was on the *wing* ;' the original * is *ωλλησις δε κυδε* *επηπτο*. Diomede exclaims, with 'a voice like thunder,' (Il. viii. 108.) in Homer †, *σμερδαλειν δε ελασσεν*. We are often told of 'the flower of Ilium,' and 'the flower of the host,' but no similar phrase is to be found in Homer. 'Scratch'd her *lily* hand,' is an epithet neither in Homer nor Pope. The latter, indeed, pleasantly amplifies the disaster of Venus:

' Raz'd her soft hand (*χειρα* again †) with this lamented wound.'

' If destruction borne
On wings of destiny this day approach
The Grecians, they will fly our first assault.' Il. xii. 97.

The figure is very bold, but not in Homer or Pope.

Αχαιοι
Ου μετεις, ει δη σφις ολεθρει πειρατος εφηπται. xii. 78.

* Hom. vi. 241.

† Hom. vi. 92.

‡ Hom. v. 425.

The words marked in Italics in the subsequent quotations, may certainly be considered as additions to the original.

—‘ Thestor next he smote.

He on his chariot-seat magnificent
Low-cow'ring sat, a *fear-distracted* form,
And from his *palfed* grasp the reins had fall'n.'

Il. xvi. 488.

ο μεν ευξεστον εν διφρω
Ησο αλειρη εκ γαρ πληυ φενας, εκ δ' αρα χειρων
Ηνια πικθησαν.

— now woe to Troy
From Jove himself! *her fate is on the wing.* Il. ii. 39.

Τρωεσσι δε καὶ εφηπτας
Ex διος.

Again :

—‘ the heavens
Sang them together with a trumpet's voice.’ Il. xxi. 454.
Αμφι δε σαλπιγξεν μεγας ορανος.

Thersites sarcastically remarks,

—‘ But hush — Achilles lacks
Himself the spirit of a man; no gall
Hath he within him, or his hand long since
Had stopped that mouth, that it should scoff no more.’

Il. ii. 290.

This is but a lax translation of

Αλλα μαλ' εκ Αχιλη χολος φρεσιν, αλλα μεθυρων.
Η γαρ αν Αλειρηνην υσται λαβησαν.

Then follows,

‘ Thus mocking royal Agamemnon, spake
Thersites.’

—*Τελείων Αγαμεμνονα παρορα λαων.*

It should be reproaching, not ‘ mocking Agamemnon’ *the Pastor of his people.* The phrase is oriental, and often occurs. Here it should certainly have been retained, as an elevation of his character seems intended. The same endearing expression in Ulysses’ spirited answer, is coolly rendered, ‘ leader of the host,’ and the words following in Italics are not in the original.

—‘ If I find thee, as ev'n now,
Raving and foaming at the lips again,
May never man behold Ulysses’ head
On these my shoulders more—’ Il. ii. 312.

It must be confessed that Ulysses concludes his speech, both in the original and the copy, more like a scolding school-mistress,

tres, with her birchen rod, than a Grecian hero * menacing with the sceptre of command.

— Next his God
Each man invoked: of the immortals him
Whom he preferr'd — Il. ii. 480.

It would seem by this that the Greeks thought that each man had his peculiar tutelar divinity, as every one is supposed to have his particular saint, in some Roman catholic countries, to whom he applies in cases of great emergency. It is a pity the original does not more strongly countenance the idea, as it would tend to illustrate, in a striking manner, the similitude that has been pointed out between popery and paganism.

Αλλος δ' αλλω εργεις θεων αιειγενεταω,
Ευχομενος θανατον γε φυγειν και μωλον Αγρος.

These instances which we have given, of Mr. Cowper's inventing or adding to the original, do not probably much affect his merit as a translator. He should not, however, have affirmed so positively that he had abstained from every thing of the kind. The following ones of *omission* stand nearly in the same predicament.

‘ Then bore Pontonous to every guest
The brimming cup; they, where they sat, perform'd
Libation due.’ Odys. xiii. 66.

Pontonous, in Homer, (xiii. 54.) mingles, as well as carries the wine, which is offered in libation to all the heavenly deities.

‘ Stand forth + O guest, thou also prove thy skill
If any such thou boast in games like ours.’ Odys. viii. 177.

The endearing title of father with which Laodamas, consonant to character, addresses Ulysses, is omitted here, and retained by Pope.

The answer which the hero makes almost immediately after to another youth, who had insulted him, may serve to show that when Homer *rises*, Mr. Cowper sometimes not only vies with his great original in strength and energy, but, even in eloquence and spirit, though strictly faithful, with Pope's highly-finished and animated paraphrase †.

‘ To whom Ulysses, frowning dark, replied,
Thou hast ill spoken, sir, and like a man

* Pope, without deviating from the original, improves the meaning, and concludes the speech in a manner remarkably spirited and sublime. ii. 320.

† Vid. Hom. Odys. viii. 144.

‡ Odys. viii. 183.

Regardless whom he wrongs. Therefore the Gods
 Give not endowments graceful in each kind,
 Of body, mind, and utt'rance, all to one.
 This man in figure less excells, yet Jove
 Crowns him with eloquence ; his hearers charm'd
 Behold him, while with modest confidence
 He bears the prize of fluent speech from all,
 And in the streets is gazed on as a God !
 Another, in his form the Pow'rs above
 Resembles, but no grace around his word
 Twines itself elegant. So, thou in form
 Hast excellence to boast ; a God, employ'd
 To make a master-piece in human shape,
 Could but produce proportions just as thine ;
 Yet hast thou an untutor'd intellect.
 Thou much hast moved me ; thy unhandsome phrase
 Hath roused my wrath ; I am not, as thou say'st,
 A novice in these sports, but took the lead
 In all, while youth and strength were on my side.
 But I am now in bands of sorrow held,
 And of misfortune, having much endured
 In war, and buffetting the boil't'rous waves.
 Yet, though with mis'ry worn, I will essay
 My strength among you ; for thy words had teeth
 Whose bite hath pinch'd and pain'd me to the proof.'

When Ulysses draws his bow, it is said that,

‘ Thro' all the rings
 From first to last the * steel charg'd weapon flew,
 Issuing beyond.’ Odys. xxi. 506.

πελεκίων δ' εκ πρεργούτε παντων
 Πρωτης σειδεις, δια δ' αμπες ηλθε θυραξ
 Ιος χαλκοσαγης.

We prefer the original epithet, which signifies ‘ weighty with brass.’ The image of its almost piercing through the door, should certainly have been retained ; as it exemplifies the strength of Ulysses, and, consequently, tends to encourage him, and terrify the suitors. Pope has amplified, but not injudiciously :

‘ The whizzing arrow vanish'd from the string,
 Sung on direct, and thredded every ring.
 The solid gate its fury scarcely bounds ;
 Pierc'd thro' and thro' the solid gate resounds.’ xxi. 461.

Mr. Cowper mentions it as his ‘ chief boast that he has ad-

* This appears rather too finical, as does the well-known expression of εγκειν
 οντων being rendered ‘ the ivory guard.’

hered closely to the original.' Many exceptions, might here, likewise, be made. Agamemnon thus rebukes his soldiers.

' Oh Greeks ! the shame of Argos ! arrow-doom'd !
Blush ye not ! wherefore stand you thus *aghast*,
 Like fawns which wearied after scouring wide
 The champaign, *gaze and pant*, and *can no more*.'

Il. iv. 283.

The original rather signifies ; ' Oh Greeks ! brave archers (or shooters of fatal arrows), now deserving reproach, have you no reverence for yourselves ? Why thus motionless and stupefied, like hinds, who after they are tired with running over the wide plain, stand still, and have no strength remaining.'

Ἄργειοι, ιομάροι, ελευλεες, καὶ νῦ σεβεσθε ;
 Τιφθ' οὐτος εσπτε τεθηποτες, πυτε νεδροι
 Αι τ' επει ενεκαρου, πολεος πεδιοι θευται,
 Ερχεται, οὐδ' αρα τις σφι μετα φερει γιγνεται αλλη. Hom. iv. 242.

' No man in all Phœacia shall by force
 Detain thee. *Jupiter himself forbid !*' Odys. vii. 393.

So Alcinous tells Ulysses in the translation ; but the reason he assigns in Homer is, ' because such an action would be displeasing to Jupiter.'

—*μη τετο φιλοι δι: πατει γενοτο*
 —' the blue-eyed Goddess as upborne
 On eagle's wings vanished.' Odys. iii. 469.

The original is in the form of an eagle. φημι ειδομεν.

Pallas tells Ulysses :

—' But I, who *keep*
 Thee in all difficulties am divine.' Odys. xx. 52.

This would induce us to understand the reverse of what is meant. She does not ' keep' but preserve or guard (*φυλασσω*) him in all difficulties.

Alcinous speaks of Demodocus, the Bard, as one,

—' whom the Gods have blest
 With powers of song delectable, *unmatch'd*
 By any when his genius once is fired.' Odys. viii. 52.

This circumstance is neither mentioned by Homer* nor Pope. When Ajax in the shades stalks away in sullen silence, Ulysses says,

—' angry as he was
 I had prevailed even on him to speak :
 Or had at least accosted him again.' Odys. xi. 691.

* Hom. Odys. viii. 44.

The sentiment in the last line is very different from the boast in that which precedes it; and, in fact, is not countenanced by the original. That merely says,

Εἴθα χ' ἀμνῷ προτεφθυν κεχολομένος η κεν εγω τον·

Penelope thus excuses herself to Ulysses for having suspected his identity.

‘ For horror hath not ceased to overwhelm
My soul, left some false alien should, perchance
Beguile me, for our house *draws numerous such.*’

Odys. xxiii. 225.

This is a very lax translation, particularly of the last line.

Αἰεὶ γαρ μοι θύμος εὐς συθεστοι φιλοισιν
Ἐργιζει, μη τις με βροτῶν απαφοτ' επεεστοι
Ελθων, πολλοὶ γαρ κακα κερδεια σύλευστοι.

Amphiareus is called (Odys. xv. 295.) ‘ a Demagogue renown'd.’ This word is usually applied to those who incite the people to mutiny: and it would have been more appropriate to Amphiareus, and true to the original, had λαοστον been rendered the ‘ Leader or Defender of his people.’

Jupiter grants to some people

‘ Wisdom which profits many, and which saves
Whole cities oft, tho' *reverenc'd but by few.*’ Il. xiii. 886.

The original is not perfectly clear; but no way resembles this interpretation. It might rather be construed, ‘ who possesses it best knows its use.’

— μαλισα δε χ' αυτος ανεγγω.

When Jupiter mentions that Juno ‘ *clashes* with his counsels, ενκλαν, taken metaphorically, as Mr. Cowper says, from the breaking of a spear against a shield,’ we have no objection to the word; but we cannot approve of it when used as synonymous, which is often the case, for *fight* or *engage*.

— μερον αυτε μαχησομεθα.

‘ Then will we *clash* again.’

The following passage is descriptive of some young horses whose mothers had an intrigue with Boreas.

— ‘ and all so light of foot,
That when they wanton'd in the fruitful field
They swept, and *snapp'd* it not, the golden ear,
And when they wanton'd on the boundless deep,
They skimm'd the green wave's frothy ridge, *secure.*’

Il. xx. 283.

Αι δ' οτε μεγ σκισταεν επι: ζειδωσον αργεαν,
Αλφον επ αυθερικων καρπον θεον, εδε κατεκλον·

Ἄλλος τέ δι σκλητων επι εὐρειν ψετα θαλασσης,
Αἴρει επι γρυμινος αλος πολιοι θεετην.

Lines intended to give an idea of velocity should not have been clogged and stiffened by inversions. They are translated very differently by Virgil (*AEn.* vii. 808.), and by Pope (*Il.* xx. 270.)

Οὐκ αὐτοὶ επειτ' Οδυσσει γ' ερίσειε βρετος αλλος.
Οὐ τοτε γ' αδ' Οδυσσος αγασσομεθ' ειδος ιδοντες. Hom. *Il.* iii. 223.

‘None then might match Ulysses; leisure, then
Found none to wonder at his *noble form.*’ 269.

We should suspect this translation of being the reverse to what was meant. Antenor describes the very awkward appearance of Ulysses when he began to speak: ‘you would at first, says he, have taken him for a fool or madman, but so soon as you had heard his graceful elocution, then you would have thought no one equal to Ulysses: you would not have expressed any surprize at his *strange appearance.*’

‘Menelaus with a lance
His throat transpiercing while erect he rode.’ *Il.* v. 685.

The original seems perfectly the reverse—*εσαοτ' εγχει νυξε*: he wounded him ‘while standing,’ i. e. in his chariot preparing to attack Menelaus. The charioteer is immediately afterwards killed by Antilochus, as Mr. Cowper renders it, ‘dashed by a stone.’ In another place Ulysses kills a warrior:

—‘from his coursers’ backs
Alighting swift.’ *Il.* xi. 515.

The phrase seems to imply that he was dismounting, but we are not to suppose that the art of riding on horseback was known, at least practised by any of the heroes, during the siege of Troy. The phrase in Homer is, *καθ' ιππων αιξαντα*, and might be rendered, rushing on with or from his horses. A particular passage, both in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, may seem, at first view, to countenance the idea that some did ride on horseback at this time. Hector is described, as

—‘feats wonderful of spear
And horsemanship atchieving.’ *Il.* xi. 609.

The expression probably favors a little too much of Astley’s equestrian exhibitions, but we believe it thoroughly consonant to the original sense. ‘Feats of horsemanship,’ were held in admiration, whether they rode or not, during the siege. A man is celebrated (*Il.* xv. 825.) for his expertness in springing from horse to horse, when driving rapidly a chariot and four—could a pupil of Astley’s do more? In the *Odyssey*, likewise, the Trojans are described as

— ‘nimble vaulters on the backs of steeds.’

Odys. xviii. 317.

ἵππων ἀκμηδῶν επίκεντρος.

Here, likewise, we should understand, as the translation seems to intimate, that the Trojans are not celebrated for their skill in riding, but tricks of horsemanship. Had the former been in use during this siege, we cannot suppose that so accurate an observer and mannerist as Homer, would have omitted, or doubtfully alluded to, a circumstance which would have enabled him to have diversified his scenes of battle by a great variety of additional picturesque imagery.

The horses, to continue our digressive subject, which Diomedë takes from Æneas, Τέων ιπποι, and with which he afterwards contends in the chariot-race (Il. xxiii. 377.), are constantly styled ‘the steeds of Troy’ by Mr. Cowper, and ‘the steeds of Tros’ by Mr. Pope, which we consider as their most appropriate term. Their descent from the immortal steeds, given by Jove to Tros, is mentioned in the fifth book. Diomedë often boasts of their pedigree, and appears as fond of horses as a Newmarket peer, and eminently knowing in heroic and equestrian genealogy. We shall here drop the subject, lest the reader should suspect us of being deeper in the turf than in Homer; we hope, however, he will excuse us in making a farther remark relative to this spirited hero. When he attacks Mars and Apollo, the phrase is, Δαιμόνιος, ‘ardent as a god.’ These deities, likewise, use the same expression when complaining of his audacity (Il. v. passim.). According to the common acceptation of the word and act, indeed, ‘like a devil’ appears to be not only the most literal but most suitable translation: Mr. Cowper accordingly, when Patroclus makes great devastation among his enemies, and when he persists in storming the walls of Troy, though guarded by Apollo (Il. xvi. 858.), renders the phrase ‘Dæmon-like.’ Phœnix likewise, when he advises Achilles not to imitate the example of Meleager, says,

— ‘follow thou
No Dæmon, who would tempt thee to a course
Like his.’ Il. ix. 748.

The idea, however, which the word Dæmon here conveys is not exactly that of Homer. It gives us rather the notion of an *evil spirit* according to the Christian system: such as Horatio apprehended the ghost of Hamlet’s father to be. Plutarch asserts that Homer entertained the idea of a good and bad Dæmon or Genius attending each individual: but he constantly uses Θεος and Δαιμονιος indiscriminately, as expressive of the same meaning.

When

When Agamemnon in the shades enquires of Ulysses, whether his son Orestes was in Pylos, Orchomenos, or Sparta, he receives this abrupt answer.

'Atrides ask not me whether he live,
Or have already died, I nothing know;
Mere words are vanity, and better spared.' Odys. xi. 560.

This neither agrees with the tender melancholy they are supposed to experience during this interview, and 'the tears they shed disconsolate' in the next line; nor with the original, which rendered literally is, 'Why do you ask me concerning these things? For I know not whether your son is alive or dead.—It is wrong to give vain and groundless information.'

Kakos δ' αρεμωλατα βαξειν.

Two vulturs are said to prey on the liver of Tityus.

— 'nor sufficed his hands
To fray them thence.' Odys. x. 709.

What is 'fray?' the original word is *απαμυνετο*, drive them away.

— 'Simular of the dead.' Odys. xxiv. 14.

Images or shadows (*ειδωλα*) would have given a juster idea of the deceased suitors. A simular is a counterfeit: and surely Mr. Cowper would not have us here understand it in the same sense with Falstaff. 'To die is to be a counterfeit; for he is but the counterfeit of a man who hath not the life of a man.'

Homer celebrates Achilles for his swiftness, but never styles him, as Mr. Cowper does, 'the swiftest of the swift.' (Il. i. 101.) Nor does that hero call Agamemnon 'a shameless wolf' (*κυνωπα*), nor 'face of flint' (*μεγ' αναιδες*), in Homer (Il. i. 195-6). Nor, in the line preceding, is 'vale-darkning' the exact word for *σκιεντα*. Mountains may be *shady* without overshadowing the adjacent valleys.

It would be endless to point out all the little deviations of this kind which occur in Mr. Cowper's translation, and which but for 'his chief boast of closely adhering to the original,' might, in general, be easily excused.

That the language is not always very highly polished must be sufficiently obvious. Mr. Cowper likewise is fully sensible of it; and 'to obviate uncandid criticism,' declares,

'To those who shall be inclined to tell me hereafter that my diction is often plain and unelevated, I reply beforehand that I know it—that it would be absurd were it otherwise, and that Homer himself stands in the same predicament. In fact, it is one of

of his numberless excellencies, and a point in which his judgment never fails him, that he is grand and lofty always in the right place, and knows infallibly how to rise and fall with his subject.'

We may admit this of Homer; but it must also be allowed that, in the tamer parts of his poems, there is a musical flow, a sonorous cadence, or happy disposition of words, that charms the reader's ear, and renders him insensible to the poverty of the subject. Mr. Cowper's language, though plain, is commonly forcible, the turn of many sentences is truly classical, and his numbers often happily varied: but we generally look in vain for the long majestic march, or liquid flow of harmony, that cheers us amidst scenes which would otherwise but faintly interest the mind. Homer, doubtless, possessed an amazing exuberance of invention; and his two poems exhibit an infinite variety of description, both as to imagery and character; but an almost perpetual continuance or renewal of figures august or beautiful, of situations new or striking, is requisite to sustain the dignity or energy of blank verse, when continued through a long succession of pages, so as to gratify the reader's mind, or interest his attention. As this excellence belongs not even to the original, it cannot be expected in a *close* translation. Measured prose, where fidelity is the great object, must frequently occur, and either Truth or Poetry be thrown into the back-ground. To palliate this evil, where the strength of the sentiment or grandeur of the incident would not support the diction, Mr. Cowper often endeavours, by a classical combination or dissociation, by transposition or inversion, to add some degree of force and vigour to it. Double negatives have taken some root in our poetic soil, by Milton's having transplanted them from the Greek; and would, on that account alone, have been, at least, excusable. They were sometimes, however, used by more ancient poets. In Fletcher's 'Mad Lover,' one of the characters says,

'Nor none dare disobey.'

Such are the following:

'Nor Thetis not complied.'

— 'nor our return
From Ades knew not Circe.'

Some phrases of a similar kind add grace and dignity to the diction. The inversions sprinkled through the following beautiful lines, heighten greatly their effect. The Trojans prepare to force the Græcian entrenchments; and

— 'while they press'd to pass, they spied a bird
Sublime in air, an eagle. Right between

Both

Both hosts he soar'd (the Trojan on his left)
 A serpent bearing in his pounces clutch'd
 Enormous, dripping blood, but lively still
 And mindful of revenge; for from beneath
 The eagle's breast, updarting fierce his head,
 Fast by the throat he struck him; anguish-sick
 The eagle cast him down into the space
 Between the hosts, and, clanging loud his plumes,
 As the wind bore him, floated far away.
 Shudder'd the Trojans viewing at their feet
 The spotted serpent ominous.'—

Many peculiar arrangements of expression might be selected, perfectly unexceptionable; but they tend very often to obscurity, sometimes to absurdity. Antenor advises that Helen should be restored to Menelaus:

‘ And hope I none conceive that aught by us
 Designed shall prosper, unless so be done.’

‘ Who hath of late beneath Alcinous' roof
 Our king arrived.’—Odys. viii. 15.

‘ Her snowy arms her darling son around
 She threw maternal.’—Il. v. 363.

—‘ From the shores
 Call'd of Abydus, famed for fleetest mares,
 Democoon.’—Il. iv. 594.

What tangled skeins are these to unravel? Again:

‘ Had not crest-tossing Hector huge perceiv'd
 The havoc.’ Il. v. 805.

Unless we refer to the original, we know not whether ‘ huge’ is to be applied to the havoc or to Hector.

—‘ Thou art young; and were myself
 Thy father, thou shouldst be my latest born.’ Il. ix. 68.

This reads like an ænigma. The original signifies, ‘ in regard to years you might be my youngest son.’

—‘ that, by the will of Jove
 We may escape, perchance, this death, secure.’
 Odys. xii. 254.

This sentence is inexplicable. If *secure* by the will of Jove, there could be no *chance* of their perishing. There is not, however, a word of *security* in the original. Hom. xii. 215.

‘ So I; then striding large, the spirit thence
 Withdrew of swift Æacides, along

The hoary mead pacing, with joy elate
That I had blazon'd bright his son's renown.'

Odys. xi. 658.

Besides the inversions, we dislike that an 'hoary mead' should be substituted for a 'a meadow of asphodel ;' an herb usually planted, as the note tells us, round the tombs of the deceased. Thence it became appropriated by the poets to the shadowy regions. ' Blazon'd bright' is not in unison with the simplicity of the original. 'Hom: xi. 536.

— ' his ample chest (i. e. a lion's)
With gory drops, and his broad cheeks are hung.
Tremendous spectacle.' Odys. xxii. 469.

A chest hung with drops of blood, and broad cheeks also, which is the natural construction, must be, indeed, a tremendous spectacle!

— ' foremost ran
Questing the hounds.' Odys. xix. 543.

Exclusive of the inversion, our reviewer, in the hunting department, objects to the translation of

Spaniels, he says, *quest* at the starting or springing of game, but *bounds* always *open*, as in the present circumstance, during the chace.

— ' nor for all the brave
Of my own brothers.' Il. vi. 550. i. e. For all my brave brothers.

The language suffers more from such distortions to prevent its sinking into prose, than might have been required for the setters of rhyme, against which Mr. Cowper so elaborately declaims in his Preface. He there, not only 'pleads guilty' (if we may use the phrase, when he glories in his confession) to a charge that might be urged against him, 'of his diction's being often plain and unelevated, and of his numbers having now and then an ugly hitch in their gait, ungraceful in itself, and inconvenient to the reader ;' but likewise vindicates his use of them. ' The truth is,' says he, in regard to his limping lines,

— ' that not one of them all escaped me, but, such as they are, they were all made such with a wilful intention. In poems of great length there is no blemish more to be feared than sameness of numbers, and every art is useful by which it may be avoided. A line, rough in itself, has yet its recommendations ; it saves the

ear the pain of an irksome monotony, and seems even to add greater smoothness to others.'

We are ready to acknowledge that Mr. Cowper sometimes roughens his lines with success, and they prove an excellent accompaniment to the sentiment: we feel their force when Ulysses struggles for life, and

—‘ the rough rocks clasping, stripp’d his hands
Bare, and the billows now whelmed him again.’

Odys. v. 522.

And, again, when the hero beheld Sisyphus :

‘ Thrusting before him, strenuous, a vast rock.
With hands and feet struggling, he shoved the stone
Up to a hill-top ; but the steep well-nigh
Vanquish’d, by some great force repulsed, the mass
Rush’d again, obstinate, down to the plain.’

We are sensibly struck with the laborious exertions in the first lines, and the last, like its Greek model, jumps along with the utmost velocity. But the meaning contained in these has no connexion with such accelerated or irregular motion.

‘ When Polybus’ son Eurymachus began.’

Odyſ. xvi. 405.

— till the earth hide

Many a lewd reveller at thy expence.' Odys. xv. 40.

‘ Jupiter even thou art false become,
And altogether so.’ Il. xii. 216.

In a long poem we have must not expect a constant succession of faultless lines: yet we can see no reason why musical periods might not be placed, according to the author's abilities, interchangeably in different parts of different lines, à summo usque ad imum, so as not to disgust the reader with too level a stream of harmony; why flat and feeble passages must be introduced for the sake of variety. A sublime one, in the midst of a tedious and dull narrative, will, doubtless, affect the mind more forcibly by the contrast; and an unexpected vale of fertility, in the midst of a desert, will please the traveller's eye more than a succession of fine objects in a rich and well-cultivated country. Yet Dante is not, therefore, superior to Tasso, nor an Arabian wilderness to the fruitful plains of England. But 'Milton,' Mr. Cowper adds, 'whose ear and taste were exquisite, has exemplified, in his *Paradise Lost*, the effect of this practice frequently.' Mr. Cowper, however, must know that many passages in Milton are not approved, but excused, on account

of the superior excellency of others. It would be difficult to point out the advantage which any lines, preceding or following such as these, can obtain by comparison or contrast.

‘Latena, illustrious concubine of Jove.’

‘When now they had all purified, and no spot
Could now be seen or blemish more.’ Odys. v. 113.

‘Beside the foss, pondering the event.’ Il. xii. 248.

‘Stichius and Menestheus leaders both.’ Il. xiii. 242.

—‘whom she had born
Herself to Anchises pasturing his herds.’ Il. v. 362.

—‘and himself
Lay on his back, clamouring in the dust.’ Odys. xviii. 495.

—‘while others ran
To and fro’ occupied about a sheep
New pastur’d.’ Il. xxiv. 160.

—‘as I have heard
Lately in yon neighbouring opulent land.’ Odys. xix. 389.

—‘On an undress’d hide
Reposed, where we threw covering over him.’

Odys. xx. 171.

What a cluster of consonants are here assembled in less than two lines!

—‘thou hast err’d, nor know’ſt
At all my doom from Jove, as thou pretend’ſt,
But seek’ſt, &c.’ Il. xxii. 323.

So says Hector to Achilles: who, not long after, accosts him in his own style, and gives him a Rowland for his Oliver.

—‘thou had’ſt once far other hopes
And stripping slain Patroclus, thought’ſt thee safe;
Nor car’d’ſt for absent me.’ Il. xxii. 381.

To exhibit such lines for the sake of adding to the effect of others, reminds us of the policy of Bayes, who professed his having designedly underwritten one character to ‘set off’ the excellency of the rest.

(To be concluded in the Appendix.)

A Voyage to the South Sea, undertaken by Command of his Majesty, for the Purpose of conveying the Bread-Fruit Tree to the West Indies, in his Majesty's Ship Bounty, commanded by Lieut. W. Bligh. 4to. 12s. boards. Nicol. 1792.

WE have often had occasion to mention the voyage undertaken to carry the most useful vegetable of the tropical islands of the Pacific Ocean to those of the Atlantic. The

bread-fruit tree is an object of the utmost importance ; and the attempt, though from an unsuspected misfortune it at first miscarried, must be considered as the suggestion of the most unbounded benevolence, conducted with the most extensive views, and productive of the greatest advantages. The voyage has been signalised also by the intrepidity of the captain, who traversed the Pacific Ocean in an open boat ; and if, as has been said, one of the mutinous seamen, while captain Bligh was going into the boat, observed with an oath, that he would find his way home, it must be considered as a spontaneous testimony of his general character for spirit and resolution. The narrative of this singular voyage occurs in our Lxxth vol. p. 536, and it is republished in the present work, with some corrections and elucidations. But those who possess it may, if they please, purchase the rest of the voyage without this addition.

The description of the ship is the subject of the first chapter,—of a ship, for the first time in the annals of the marine, changed to a conservatory, whose great cabin was a green, and occasionally a hot-house. There were other subordinate views of general utility in this voyage, which it is not necessary to mention at present : on the whole, the instructions and the management seem to have been dictated with great skill and humanity. The first design was to go round the southern promontory of America ; but the vessel was not ready in proper time ; and, when they reached Cape Horn, the westerly winds were already set in with violence ; they went therefore to the Cape of Good Hope, and reached at last Otaheite, by a circuitous voyage ; but such was the expedition that, reckoning the space ran by direct and contrary courses, its extent was 27,086 miles, and at the rate of 108 miles every 24 hours. But we shall follow our enterprising navigator more particularly, and pick up a few of the more generally interesting events in this track.

The bread-fruit tree is first described, from the accounts of different voyagers, and a section of it is delineated. The description is now, however, in the hands of the greater part of our readers. Captain Bligh imitated his great friend captain Cook in dividing his crew into three watches, airing the hold and drying it every day with fire. The event was, as might be expected, his crew was uncommonly healthy ; and, even after the severe trials in endeavouring to weather Cape Horn in the most stormy weather, rheumatism was almost the only disease. One man died, in consequence seemingly of a nervous complaint from a puncture of the tendon or nerve in bleeding. When they reached the southern latitudes, their live stock were destroyed, and the hogs only were hardy enough to bear

bear the severity of the weather. The albatrosses and pintada birds were lean and fishy; but, when caught and fed a little while in coops, they were found to be scarcely inferior to geese and ducks. The soundings of the coast of America, from 36° south latitude to the southward, capt. Bligh tells us, are very convenient to judge of the distance of ships from the land, as there are often thick fogs near the coast. ' To go through the Straits of Le Maire must undoubtedly, he adds, shorten the passage, as all the distance saved is so much gained to the westward; and I am informed that several harbours have been lately discovered, by the South Sea whalers, on the north side of Staten Island, that afford safe anchorage, with supplies of wood and water.' Off Cape Horn, the situation of the ship did not seem to be affected by the currents. Captain Bligh did not fall in with the islands of Tristan de Cunha, and he suspects that Mr. Dalrymple's plans are correct, where these islands are placed a little more to the north than in the other charts. From the narrative of the events at the Cape, we shall select the only account that has been procured, of the unfortunate survivors of the Grosvenor Indiaman.

' During our stay here, I took care to procure seeds and plants that would be valuable at Otaheite, and the different places we might touch at in our way thither. In this I was greatly assisted by colonel Gordon, the commander of the troops. In company with this gentleman, the loss of the Grosvenor East Indiaman was mentioned: on this subject, colonel Gordon expressed great concern, that from any thing he had said, hopes were still entertained to flatter the affectionate wishes of the surviving friends of those unfortunate people. He said that, in his travels in the Caffre country, he had met with a native who described to him, that there was a white woman among his countrymen, who had a child, and that she frequently embraced the child, and cried most violently. This was all he (the colonel) could understand; and, being then on his return home, with his health much impaired by fatigue, the only thing that he could do, was to make a friend of the native, by presents, and promises of reward, on condition that he would take a letter to this woman, and bring him back an answer. Accordingly he wrote letters in English, French, and Dutch, desiring, that some sign or mark might be returned, either by writing with a burnt stick, or by any means she should be able to devise, to satisfy him that she was there; and that on receiving such token from her, every effort should be made to ensure her safety and escape. But the Caffre, although apparently delighted with the commission which he had undertaken, never returned, nor has the colonel ever heard any thing more of him, though he had been instructed in methods of conveying information through the Hottentot country,

To

* To this account, that I may not again have occasion to introduce so melancholy a subject, I shall add the little information I received respecting it, when I re-visited the Cape, in my return towards Europe.—A reputable farmer, of the name of Holhousen, who lives at Swellendam, eight days journey from the Cape, had information from some Caffre Hottentots, that at a crawl, or village, in their country, there were white men and women. On this intelligence, Mr. Holhousen asked permission of the governor to make an expedition, with some of the farmers, into the country, requiring a thousand rix-dollars to bear his expences. The governor referred him to Mr. Wocke, the landros of Grave-rennet, a new colony, in his way. But from the place where Mr. Holhousen lives, to the landros, Mr. Wocke's residence, is a month's joutney, which he did not chuse to undertake at an uncertainty, as Mr. Wocke might have disapproved of the enterprize. It was in October last that Mr. Holhousen offered to go on this service. He was one of the party who went along the sea-coast in search of these unfortunate people, when a few of them first made their appearance at the Cape. I am however informed, that the Dutch farmers are fond of making expeditions into the country, that they may have opportunities of taking away cattle; and this, I apprehend, to be one of the chief reasons why undertakings of this kind are not encouraged.'

The latitude of the Cape, our author thinks, is correctly set down by major Rennell, considering the Cape to be the southernmost point of land between Table Bay and False Bay. Captain Bligh, from many observations with good instruments, found it to be in lat. $34^{\circ} 23'$ south. The time-keeper answered, on trial, very well: it varied only $3' 23.^{\prime\prime} 2$; losing about $3''$ per day.

From the Cape, the Bounty proceeded to Van Diemen's Land, and the following meteorological observations merit being particularly transcribed.

* In our passage from the Cape of Good Hope, the winds were mostly from the westward, with very boisterous weather: but one great advantage, that this season of the year has over the summer months is, in being free from fogs. I have already remarked, that the approach of strong southerly winds is announced by many kinds of birds of the albatross or petrel tribe, and the abatement of the gale, or a shift of wind to the northward, by their keeping away. The thermometer also very quickly shews when a change of these winds may be expected, by varying sometimes six and seven degrees in its height. I have reason to believe, that after we passed the island St. Paul, there was a weatherly current; the ship being every day to the westward of the reck-

C. R. N. AR. (IV.) April, 1792. D d oning,

oning, which in the whole, from St. Paul to Van Diemen's Land, made a difference of four degrees between the longitude by the reckoning and the true longitude.'

They landed in Adventure Bay, where no Europeans seem to have visited since our author and captain Cook were there in 1777. The traces of captain Furneaux's visit in 1773, viz. the name cut with a knife on a dead tree, show the durability of the wood: the marks are not enlarged, so that the tree has not since been in a growing state, and are not in the least obliterated. On the east side of the bay, in a tolerably safe situation, our voyagers planted three fine young apple-trees, nine vines, six plantain trees, a number of orange and lemon seeds, various other fruit seeds and stones, and two sorts of Indian corn. We trust that it will be a common observation in future, when the voyager finds numerous unexpected fruits on a distant shore, that it is a sign the English have previously visited the coast. They saw some of the natives, and one that they had formerly particularly noticed; but they add little to the accounts of their predecessors.

At Otaheite they find the same generous friendly reception that the first voyagers experienced. The diligence of travellers and bookmakers have not left much to be gleaned in this field; but we must not despise the account of an author who seems to have observed with care, and related with fidelity.

One of the earliest objects of curiosity will probably be the fate of the cattle, and the gardens left by captain Cook. This volatile inconsiderate race have greatly neglected both; and, what neglect has not injured, their enemies, led probably by the report of these new riches, have destroyed. A bull and a cow, however, remain, but they were absurdly separated in different islands *; some goats are now caught in a wild state, and there are still a few sheep, but not apparently very healthy and prosperous. The vegetables carried there are greatly lessened; yet various articles remain, particularly fhadock-trees, pine-apples, some underground pease and Indian corn. Capt. Bligh has restored the bull to his mate, added to their stock of fruits and plants, and by every judicious measure endeavoured to convince the islanders of the importance of these treasures. Omai is dead, and fortunately his riches were not fatal to him: his death was natural. Otoo, the former chief, is now called Tinah, and his late appellation is transferred to his eldest son. He is now about 35; six feet four inches in height, and proportionally stout. Iddeah is also much above the common size of Ota-

* There were eight calves and ten lambs carried by the underers to Eimeo, but it is not known whether they have been eaten, or suffered to increase.

heitan women, unusually intelligent, and it seems is a dextrous wrestler. Women contend with women in this exercise in their occasional entertainments, and it sometimes happens that they contest the prize with men: Iddeah, the Zenobia of the Society Islands, is one of the heroines of this class.

The hogs of Otaheite are larger than usual, from the mixture of the European breed; but the natives will neither eat the flesh of goats, nor drink their milk.—The following remarks concerning the Arreofs, though not wholly new, are singular and curious.

‘ After dinner, Tinah invited me to accompany him with a present of provisions to a party of the Arreofs, a society described in the account of the former voyages: in this ceremony he made me the principal person. Our way to the place where the offering was to be made, was by the side of a river, along the banks of which I had always walked before this time; but on the present occasion a canoe was provided for me, and dragged by eight men. On arriving at the landing-place, I saw a large quantity of bread-fruit, with some hogs ready dressed and a quantity of cloth. At about forty yards distant sat a man, who, I was informed, was a principal Arreoy. A lane being made by the crowd, he was addressed by one of Tinah’s people, standing on the canoe, in a speech composed of short sentences, which lasted about a quarter of an hour. During this, a piece of cloth was produced, one end of which I was desired to hold, and five men, one with a sucking pig, and the others having each a basket of bread-fruit, prepared to follow me. In this order we advanced to the Arreoy, and laid the whole down before him. I then spoke several sentences dictated to me by Tinah, the meaning of which I did not understand; and, my pronunciation not being very exact, caused a great deal of mirth. This speech being finished, I was shewn another Arreoy, who had come from Ulietea, and to him likewise I was required to deliver an oration. Tinah understanding from me, that I had children in my own country, he desired me to make one more offering on their account. There still remained three baskets of bread-fruit, a small pig, and another piece of cloth: with these, assisted as before, I made the offering in favour of my children to the man whom I had first addressed. He made no reply to all my fine speeches, but sat with great gravity, and received every thing as a matter of right, and not of courtesy.

‘ All that I could make out of this strange ceremony was, that the Arreofs are highly respected, and that the society is chiefly composed of men distinguished by their valour or some other merit, and that great trust and confidence is reposed in them; but I could not comprehend what this had to do with my children, or why it should be imagined that an offering made on their account

to a society of men, who destroy all their children, should be propitious. I learnt from Tinah, in talking about his children, that his first-born child was killed as soon as it came into the world, he being then an Arreoy; but before his second child was born, he quitted the society. The Arreoys are allowed great latitude in their amours, except in times of danger. Then, as they are almost all fighting men (tata toa) they are restricted, that they may not weaken or enervate themselves.'

The cause of these extraordinary customs is not well known: it is referred by the inhabitants to the apprehension of increasing the population too much in a country necessarily limited. But the institution is confined to the principal persons, and is probably connected with some customs of the distant countries, from whence the inhabitants of the Society Islands were derived. This is in many respects worthy a strict enquiry, and it should be directed to the eastern coast of Asia and the adjacent islands, the probable source of the Otaheitan nation, and of the neighbouring islanders. While the island of New Holland is so near, and inhabited so scantily, we regret with capt. Bligh, that they should not be acquainted with its situation; and, if the apprehension of too numerous a population be indeed the cause of the institution, that they should not have discovered the means of emigration.—In the following conversation, may we not accuse captain Bligh of too great levity, and a little indiscretion?

' While I was at dinner, Tinah desired I would permit a man to come down into the cabin, whom he called his Taowah, or priest; for I was obliged to keep a sentinel at the hatchway to prevent being incommoded at my meals with too much company; a restriction which pleased the chiefs, who always asked leave for any particular person to be admitted of whom they wished me to take notice. The company of the priest brought on a religious conversation. He said, their great god was called Oro; and that they had many others of less consequence. He asked me if I had a God?— if he had a son? and who was his wife? I told them he had a son, but no wife. Who was his father and mother? was the next question. I said, he never had father or mother; at this they laughed exceedingly. You have a god then who never had a father or mother, and has a child without a wife! many other questions were asked, which my little knowledge of the language did not enable me to answer.'

Mr. Samuel, captain Bligh's clerk, made an excursion to the neighbouring mountains, and described the hills in general as well clothed with wood, except the tops of the higher mountains, which only produced bushes and fern. The birds he saw were blue parroquets and green doves, except one, which was found

found burrowing in the ground, and proved to be the white-bellied petrel. He brought the branch of a tree resembling the New Zealand tea plant, which our travellers had found at Van Diemen's Land, and used for brooms. The bread-fruit trees, the chief object of their voyage, they had carefully potted, and they were in a thriving state. Captain Bligh artfully led Tinah to propose sending a present to king George, and, when mentioning what productions he could offer, seemingly by accident fixed on the bread-fruit trees.

‘ Tuesday the 31st. To-day, all the plants were on board, being in 774 pots, 39 tubs, and 24 boxes. The number of bread-fruit plants were 1015: besides which, we had collected a number of other plants. The *avee*, which is one of the finest-flavoured fruits in the world. The *ayyab*, which is a fruit not so rich, but of a fine flavour and very refreshing. The *rattah*, not much unlike a chesnut, which grows on a large tree, in great quantities: they are singly in large pods, from one to two inches broad; and may be eaten raw, or boiled in the same manner as Windsor beans, and so dressed, are equally good. The *orai-ab*, which is a very superior kind of plantain. All these I was particularly recommended to collect, by my worthy friend, sir Joseph Banks. I had also taken on board some plants of the *citow* and *matte*, with which the natives here make a beautiful red colour; and a root called *peeah*, of which they make an excellent pudding.’

‘ We left Otaheite with only two patients in the venereal list, which shows that the disease has not gained ground. The natives say that it is of little consequence, and we saw several instances of people that had been infected, who, after absenting themselves for 15 or 20 days, made their appearance again, without any visible symptom remaining of the disease. Their method of cure I am unacquainted with; but their customary diet, and mode of living, must contribute towards it. We saw a great many people, however, with scrophulous habits, and bad sores: these they denied to be produced from any venereal cause; and our surgeon was of the same opinion.

‘ The result of the mean of 50 sets of lunar observations, taken by me on shore, gives for the longitude of point Venus 210 33 57 E.
 ‘ Capt. Cook, in 1769, places it in 210 27 30
 ‘ In 1777, his last voyage 210 22 28
 ‘ The tide, in Toahroah harbour, was very inconsiderable, and not regular. The greatest rise that I observed, was 11 inches; but, what was most singular, the time of high water did not appear to be governed by the moon, it being at the highest, every

D a 3 day,

day, between noon and two o'clock. 'The variable winds and weather, at this time of the year, has no doubt an influence on the tides: on some days, scarce any rise was perceptible.'

At Huaheine captain Bligh found the former accounts of Omai confirmed; but not the least traces of the house built for him remained: of all the animals, the mare only was alive.

'On the 9th, at nine o'clock in the morning, the weather became squally, and a body of thick black clouds collected in the east. Soon after, a water-spout was seen at no great distance from us, which appeared to great advantage from the darkness of the clouds behind it. As nearly as I could judge, it was about two feet diameter at the upper part, and about eight inches at the lower. I had scarce made these remarks, when I observed that it was advancing rapidly towards the ship. We immediately altered our course, and took in all the sails, except the fore-sail; soon after which, it passed within ten yards of our stern, making a rustling noise, but without our feeling the least effect from its being so near us. The rate at which it travelled, I judged to be about ten miles per hour, going towards the west in the direction of the wind. In a quarter of an hour after passing us, it dispersed. I never was so near a water-spout before: the connection between the column, which was higher than our mast-heads, and the water below, was no otherwise visible, than by the sea being disturbed in a circular space of about six yards in diameter, the centre of which, from the whirling of the water round it, formed a hollow; and from the outer parts of the circle, the water was thrown up with much force, in a spiral direction, and could be traced to the height of fifteen or twenty feet. At this elevation we lost sight of it, and could see nothing of its junction with the column above. It is impossible to say what injury we should have suffered, if it had passed directly over us. Masts, I imagine, might have been carried away, but I do not apprehend it would have endangered the loss of a ship.'

We perceive nothing else particularly interesting. Near the island of Kotoo the mutiny began, whose events have been already related. Of the account now published, the narrative is somewhat fuller, and the nautical notation of days is reduced to the civil mode.—But these variations are not of importance enough to detain us. A plan and profile of the deck of the *Bounty*, a print of capt. Bligh, sections of the bread-fruit, and a chart of the harbour of Toahroah are added. The charts, which illustrated the former narrative, are also retained. On the whole, this is a very interesting account, and

and will add greatly to the merit of the able officer who conducted, and has related it: we trust that, in his present voyage, he will be more successful.

Anecdotes of the Life of the Right Hon. William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, and of the principal Events of his Time. With his Speeches in Parliament, from the Year 1736 to the Year 1778. 2 Vols. 4to. 1l. 16s. boards. Jordan. 1792.

THE Life of the late lord Chatham requires the pen of an accomplished and impartial historian. His character was a singular one: with a vigour of mind, an extent of understanding seldom equalled, with views unusually bold and comprehensive, he astonished Europe by his vast and uncommon plans, by execution equally prompt and active. In the subtle mazes of court-intrigue, he seemed to possess a decided integrity, and an honest disregard of subterfuge. This part of his life is, however, stained with a few apparent blots, which, perhaps, the archives of the family, or the collectors of memoirs may, at a future time obliterate; or which, for we own that we are not without suspicions, they may find indelibly fixed. The work before us comes forward in a doubtful manner, and in an equivocal form. The author is unknown: he professes only to collect the subjects of conversation; for, he tells us, 'the anecdotes were all of them in their day well known; that they were the subjects of public conversation; but have not been published.' 'His situation, he adds, gave him a knowledge of them, and a *personal* acquaintance with several of the events.' This may be the language of any writer in the purlieus of Grub-street; and the test must be sought for in the work itself. With this view we have examined it with care; and, on the whole, can pronounce it to be the work of a man we suspect, who might at least say that he has recorded 'quæ miserrima vidi, & quorum pars fui *.' On some subjects he is less full than he ought to have been, and pleads the danger of speaking boldly of an æra so near to the present. On others it is not easy to discriminate the value, or the authenticity of his intelligence. It is not in every part equally authentic; and we can observe only, that the author is a Whig, not in every instance the advocate of lord Chatham, and certainly connected, pretty closely, with the favourers of the American revolution.

This we thought necessary to premise; for, in our account of the work, we shall not always stop to appreciate his intelligence. This clue, which is the whole that we have been able to discover from internal evidence, and we possess no other, must in general be the guide.

* If we are not deceived, he *has* been a sufferer in the cause.

The anecdotes, which fill these volumes, are arranged in a chronological order: they can scarcely be called a Life, or perhaps they might have been styled Anecdotes of the *public Life* of William Pitt. They commence, however, with his youth, his university-exercises, and the early part of his military career. We remember hearing a physician, who attended him in a provincial town, remark,—that he always appeared a man of extraordinary intellectual attainments: I would not, he added, at that time, have contended with him on a medical subject, if he had half an hour to consider it.

It is well known that he was deprived of his commission in consequence of his parliamentary conduct; a circumstance which occasioned his being very early considered as the victim of unconstitutional persecution, the worm that might in future 'venom breed;' and so far his enemies seem to have shown some degree of discernment, though without judgment or prudence. The early part of Mr. Pitt's parliamentary life is not very full, or even authentic. The changes of administration, and the probable motives, collected apparently from the records of the day, and speeches in parliament from magazines, the best source of intelligence that can now be procured, as the principal arguments are probably correct, though perhaps injured by the errors of the orator in the garret, form the chief of the author's materials. He declaims, indeed, against the falsehood of history, and condemns Smollett, Goldsmith, &c. for adhering merely to the appointments taken from the *Gazettes*, without adverting, that very often, and indeed respecting the particular transactions which provoke his censure, that he has done little more. In Mr. Pitt's speech on sir Francis Dashwood's amendment of the motion for the address, we perceive the first trace of original communication by 'M S.' marked on the margin. This means only, that the speeches are printed 'from the editor's notes, or those of his friends:' the authenticity of these speeches must still, therefore, rest on the internal evidence, which we have already noticed.

The various changes of administration from this period, it is not of consequence to detail. It was not a very splendid æra of Mr. Pitt's political life; and it is only in the year 1754, on the death of Mr. Pelham, that he becomes more particularly the object of attention. At this period Mr. Pitt expected to be made secretary of state, but was disappointed: it is represented truly, as an æra of selfish interested intrigue, where places were bestowed with little regard to the qualifications of persons, and when the navy and army felt equally the force of this enervating corruption. The management of the house of commons, as it is called, is explained in this part of the work:

we shall transcribe the paragraph, with another, that contributes to illustrate it.

‘ The management of the house of commons, as it is called, is a confidential department, unknown to the constitution. In the public accounts, it is immersed under the head of secret service. It is usually given to the secretary of state, when that post is filled by a commoner. The business of the department is to distribute, with *art* and *policy*, amongst the members, who have no ostensible places, sums of money; for their support during the session; besides contracts, lottery tickets, and other *douceurs*. It is no uncommon circumstance at the end of a session, for a gentleman to receive five hundred or a thousand pounds, for *his services*.’

‘ It is impossible to dismiss this point without a short apostrophe, on the alarming state of British depravity. If the administration of annual bribes to the members of the legislature, independent of the influence of places, public and private, is become so necessary, and the practice so mechanical, as to comprise the *most essential department* of government—is it not a matter of indelible disgrace on the nation, and on the constitution? There is no species of corruption to be found in the ancient government, that equals it. It is a perfect parricide. The British empire has been dismembered by it—so fatally true is that maxim of lord Burleigh, ‘ that England can never be undone but by her parliament *.’

About

‘ * Of the many *facts* which might be stated, the following may serve as a specimen :

‘ Towards the end of the session, the secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Bradshaw, one day accosts Mr. Lowndes (member for Bucks) with, *sir, you have voted with us all the winter; some return is usually expected upon these occasions; and as we are much obliged to you for your constant support, if you chuse to accept of two hundred lottery tickets at ten pounds each, they are at your service.* Mr. Lowndes bowed, expressed his great friendship for the secretary, and accepted of the offer; adding only, that as the session was just upon the close, he should as soon as it was finished, go into the country upon his private affairs; and begged the tickets might be sent to such a one, his banker; which the secretary having promised to comply with, they parted. Mr. Lowndes went to Winslow. The tickets were delivered: none, however, were sent to Mr. Lowndes’ banker. The reason of which was, they had been distributed among that part of the common council, who voted against the livery having the use of Guildhall. Mr. Lowndes, hearing nothing of the tickets, wrote to his banker, who returned for answer, that he had not received, nor heard, of any tickets. Mr. Lowndes next wrote to Mr. Bradshaw, who in his answer “ begged a thousand pardons; that the matter had quite slipped his memory; that the tickets were all disposed of, except five and twenty, which were at his service.” Mr. Lowndes meanly accepted of the twenty-five, and they were sent to his banker’s.—By these tickets he probably cleared about one hundred pounds. Such was his *douceur* for voting one session with the duke of Grafton.

* In a late parliament, the nabob of Arcot had nine members in his interest—Might not any European prince have twice that number by the same means?

About this period, or rather in the year before, the disagreements arose at Leicester house, respecting the education of the present king. At this time the career of lord Bute began. He was gentleman of the bed-chamber to the late prince of Wales, and is said 'to have excelled in the assumption of theatrical grace and gesture, which, added to a good figure, rendered his conversation particularly pleasing.' The controversy ended in the resignation of the governor and preceptor, lord Harcourt, and the bishop of Norwich, occasioned partly by improper books being found in the hands of their pupil, and partly perhaps by machinations still deeper. This unfortunate connection occasioned afterwards much confusion, and from hence was traced the first idea of an interior cabinet, composed of men not official, and consequently not responsible. This very unconstitutional and impolitic plan has been supposed to have continued unchanged, and has not escaped the animadversion of modern reformers, who unable, or unwilling, to distinguish between this interior cabinet and the executive power, have grounded on it the most destructive doctrines. At this time the difficulties of contention and the asperity of party are worn away, but we cannot help reflecting, that the principles and the conduct of lord Bute had almost brought this country to the verge of destruction; and, while we give this nobleman the fullest credit for talents and learning, for almost every intellectual and acquired accomplishment, we must add that, as a minister and a politician, he merits the severest reprehensions. Some of our author's future reflections on the conduct of Englishmen, respecting the royal family, we shall transcribe in this place.

• There is such a delicacy prevails in England, greater than in some arbitrary monarchies, concerning the conduct of the royal family, that truth of them is usually suppressed, until it is forgotten. The justice of history is thereby perverted; and the constitution, in this important point, is literally and efficiently destroyed. The king of England is no more than the first magistrate. It is an office held in trust. And although the maxim is, than he can do no wrong, which is founded upon the presumption, that every privy counsellor, according to the act of settlement, signs the ad-

means?—Do not these facts speak stronger than a thousand arguments, the necessity of a parliamentary reform?

• But it is further remarkable, and in the breast of every honest man it must be matter of sincere lamentation, that doucours have been given to the judges.—Sir Richard Aston, in particular, was seen selling his tickets in 'Change Alley; and when the fact was mentioned to him at the Old Bailey at dinner, he confessed it, and said, he had as good a right to sell his tickets, as Mr. Justice Willes, or any body else.—Is not this circumstance a full answer to all the encomiums on the independence of the judges?

vice

vice he gives ; yet this law is not always observed ; and if it were, all important matters are transacted in the king's name, and he assents to them. In whose name then are they to be scrutinized, examined and canvassed ? The adviser is seldom known. The nation has unquestionably as deep an interest in the conduct of the royal family, as in the conduct of the ministry. Will any body now say, that the German measures in the reign of *George the Second*, were not the *favourite* measures of that king, or that they did not *originate* with him ? If the free spirit of the constitution was fairly recognized, it must appear, that the conduct of the royal family, is in every part of it a proper subject for public disquisition. The people are interested in it ; the welfare of the country is concerned in it. Even the female branches are called the *children of the nation* ; and when they marry, their portions are taken out of the public purse. But lawyers say the people can only know, and speak, by their representatives. If this legal opinion is well founded, the liberty of the press, which Englishmen sometimes esteem, but oftener betray, is a shadow, an *ignis fatuus*. Certain it is, that *time-serving* judges and *timid* juries, have made a deeper incision in the liberties of England, than all the arms of all the *Stuarts*. Some years ago it was a notion in Westminster-hall, that no person out of parliament, had a right to make observations upon the speech delivered by the king to his parliament. But after a little reflection and examination, this law-notion was exploded ; it was insupportable : it tended to establish a privileged vehicle of imposition upon the whole nation : than which nothing could be more unjust, nor more foreign to the British constitution. The people have a right to examine the conduct of every man in a public situation ; and it will hardly be contended, that they have no interest in that of the royal family. Therefore in those cases, where the party is not only in the highest state of elevation, but possesses the greatest extent of power, does not the *exercise* of this right become most essentially their concern ? To this delicacy, or something worse, is to be ascribed, the general falsification of all *modern* history. If the reader will give himself the trouble to compare the anecdotes of this work, with the histories of the times, he will see a manifest difference ; and yet the writer declares, that he has not inserted a single word, which, in his judgment, is not founded in the purest veracity.'

The opposition made to the introduction of the Hessian troops, and some similar patriotic exertions, occasioned Mr. Pitt's dismission from the office of paymaster, a place which he had held with a disinterestedness unexampled, and *voluntarily, we believe*, unimitated. The distresses of the nation in the war of 1756 occasioned his again coming into power in the more important office of secretary of state.

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The spirit which animated the nation at this æra is well known: the diligence and secrecy with which the different measures were conducted; the spirit of enterprize which distinguished the conductors is too well known to need being particularly mentioned. In this general sketch we connect, in fact, the two administrations of Mr. Pitt, passing over the little interval when court-intrigue removed, and the general voice of the nation restored him. One circumstance, in the first administration, may be mentioned with astonishment: he proposed, in the Spanish negotiation in 1756, to cede Gibraltar to Spain; and again, in 1761, offered it as the price of the sacrifice of the family-compact. We are superior to the empty pride of national punctilio, and well know the respect which the crudest idea of lord Chatham deserves; but, on this subject, we must differ. Without Gibraltar, France and Spain might have imposed duties on every ship that entered the Mediterranean; the trade of Britain would have been limited; and the first maritime power that the world ever saw might have had an additional fetter on her marine exertions. If the vast scheme, respecting the trade of Poland, had succeeded, one of the consequences might have been, that the dues on entering the Sound must have been remitted. In the Appendix it appears that this idea of the renunciation of Gibraltar was not new in the British court. It had occurred to George I. and even that prudent prince had promised it so far as it depended on him. This, in the court of an absolute monarch, was considered as an absolute promise, and the performance was afterwards demanded. We trust that Great Britain will never again be in a situation to require such a sacrifice.

The events on the succession of George III. are recent, and within the memory of many of our readers. It had been the fashion for some time to declaim on the misfortunes of victory, on the expences of a war, where success was pernicious, and defeat ruin. We are now more enlightened, enlightened by dear-bought experience; but, even at that time, it *ought* to have been seen, that Great Britain could not subsist as an independent power, without a navy equal to that which, within any probable contingency, could be brought against her; and that conquests, unconnected with, or not to be controlled by, such a navy, were useless. Yet the incroachments of the French on the side of Canada had been the cause of the war, and the clamours of two million British colonists demanded its cession. There were, however, other sacrifices to have purchased, at that time, the West India islands; and, if Martinico had been ceded, St. Lucia, which would at any time have commanded it, with a sufficient naval force, should have been retained. Impartial posterity will at once see that the eagerness of the court

court to make peace occasioned them to obtain worse terms than the French before offered ; and that Great Britain, in the event of a future war, gave her enemies the advantage. Our author notices Dr. Musgrave's accusation, and adds his examination before the house of commons. It was alledged that the French purchased the peace ; but M. d'Eon, whom Dr. Musgrave quoted as one of the agents, has since said, that money was more probably given by England. Both might have been true ; inducements might have led the English leaders to treat ; and, when they were committed, it may have been found expedient, by *any means*, to procure terms apparently honourable and advantageous. In the momentary humiliation of Great Britain, France secured herself in case of future hostilities ; and government will find the late cession of St. Lucia and Tobago most inconvenient, in case of hostilities in the West Indies. At present a fairer prospect opens to our view.

(To be concluded in the Appendix.)

A Vindication of the Rights of Woman : with Strictures on political Subjects. By Mary Wollstonecraft. 8vo. 6s. boards. Johnson. 1792.

ONE of the strictest proofs in mathematical demonstrations, is the reducing the question to an absurdity ; by allowing, for instance, that the proposition is not true, and then showing that this would lead to the most obvious inconsistencies. Miss Wollstonecraft has converted this method of proceeding with the same success : reasoning on the boasted principles of the Rights of Man, she finds they lead very clearly to the object of her work, a Vindication of the Rights of Woman ; and, by the absurdity of many of her conclusions, shows, while we admit the reasoning, that the premises must be, in some respects, fallacious.

‘ Dismissing then those pretty feminine phrases, which the men condescendingly use to soften our slavish dependence, and despising that weak elegancy of mind, exquisite sensibility, and sweet docility of manners, supposed to be the sexual characteristics of the weaker vessel, I wish to shew that elegance is inferior to virtue, that the first object of laudable ambition is to obtain a character as a human being, regardless of the distinction of sex ; and that secondary views should be brought to this simple touchstone.’

This is the outline of her plan ; but before she proceeds to show that this change would be suitable, useful, advantageous, it will be first necessary to prove that there is no sexual distinction.

tinction of character; that the female mind is equally fitted for the more arduous mental operations; that women are equally able to pursue the toilsome road of minute, laborious, investigation; that their judgments are equally sound, their resolution equally strong. After this is done, the benefit derived must be considered; and, when all are strong, to whom must the weaker operations belong? The female Plato will find it unsuitable to 'the dignity of her virtue' to dress the child, and descend to the disgusting offices of a nurse: the new Archimedes will measure the shirts by means of the altitude taken by a quadrant; and the young lady, instead of studying the softer and more amiable arts of pleasing, must contend with her lover for superiority of mind, for greater dignity of virtue; and before she condescends to become his wife, must prove herself his equal or superior.—It may be fancy, prejudice, or obstinacy, we contend not for a name, but we are infinitely better pleased with the present system; and, in truth, dear young lady, for by the appellation sometimes prefixed to your name we must suppose you to be young, endeavour to attain 'the weak elegancy of mind,' the 'sweet docility of manners,' 'the exquisite sensibility,' the former ornaments of your sex; we are certain you will be more pleasing, and we dare pronounce that you will be infinitely happier. Mental superiority is not an object worth contending for, if happiness be the aim. But, as this is the first female combatant in the new field of the Rights of Woman, if we smile only, we shall be accused of wishing to decline the contest; if we content ourselves with paying a compliment to her talents, it will be styled inconsistent with 'true dignity,' and as showing that we want to continue the 'slavish dependence.'—We must contend then with this new Atalanta; and who knows whether, in this modern instance, we may not gain two victories by the contest? There is more than one bachelor in our corps; and, if we should succeed, miss Wollstonecraft may take her choice.

This work is dedicated to M. Talleyrand-Perigord, late bishop of Autun, who, in his treatise on National Education, does not seem to be perfectly convinced that the rights of man extend to woman; yet in France the diffusion of knowledge, our author asserts, is greater than in any other European nation, on account of the more unreserved communication between the sexes, though what the ladies have gained in knowledge they seem confessedly to have lost in delicacy. The following passage we must transcribe, for we confess we do not fully understand it.

‘ Contending for the rights of woman, my main argument is built on this simple principle, that if she be not prepared by education

cation to become the companion of man, she will stop the progress of knowledge, for truth must be common to all, or it will be inefficacious with respect to its influence on general practice. And how can woman be expected to co-operate unless she know why she ought to be *virtuous*! unless freedom strengthen her reason till she comprehend her duty, and see in what manner it is connected with her real good? If children are to be educated to understand the true principle of patriotism, their mother must be a patriot; and the love of mankind, from which an orderly train of virtues spring, can only be produced by considering the moral and civil interest of mankind; but the education and situation of woman, at present, shuts her out from such investigations.

'In this work I have produced many arguments, which to me were conclusive, to prove that the prevailing notion respecting a sexual character was subversive of morality, and I have contended, that to render the human body and mind more perfect, chastity must more universally prevail, and that chastity will never be respected in the male world till the person of a woman is not, as it were, idolized, when little virtue or sense embellish it with the grand traces of mental beauty, or the interesting simplicity of affection.'

The first sentence is erroneous in fact and in reasoning: it is contradicted by the experience of ages, the practice of different nations. The second sentence is a curious one—How can she be supposed to co-operate (we *suppose* in the progress of knowledge) unless she know why she ought to be *virtuous*? *Virtuous!* Here must be some mistake: what has virtue to do with the progress of knowledge? As to freedom, strengthening the reason, &c. we see no occasion for metaphysical investigation on this subject: that virtue is connected with prosperity and happiness, and vice with misfortune and misery, she might learn, not from Locke, but the New Testament. The concluding sentence of the first paragraph is still more strange. Patriotism may be very properly instilled by a *father*; and we must beg leave to differ in opinion from this lady in another point: we are confident, from frequent and extensive observation, no arguments can confute the opinion that we have formed, and we must still persist in thinking, that the education and situation of women, *at present*, really and effectually *inspire* the *love of mankind*. We do believe with miss Wollstonecraft, that chastity will be respected more, when the person of a woman ceases to be idolized, and the grand traces of mental beauty are principally conspicuous.

The pathetic address *ad hominem**, on the injustice and cruelty

* As we write this article professedly for the service of the lady, we ought to apologize for the Latin word: It may be englisch'd 'personal address';—but homi-

cruelty of subjugating women, is interesting and well expressed: It is true, that women cannot ‘by force be confined to domestic concerns:’ it is equally true, that ‘they will neglect private duties, to disturb, by cunning tricks, the orderly plans of reason;’ and sometimes, we may add, even for worse purposes. We agree too, that no coercion should be established ‘in society, and the common law of gravity prevailing; the sexes will fall into their proper place:’ nor shall we object to another passage, that ‘if women are not permitted to enjoy legitimate rights, they will render both men and themselves vicious to obtain illicit privileges.’ But to be serious.

We should despise ourselves, if we were capable to garble sentences, in order to make them bear a different or a double meaning. The meaning of miss Wollstonecraft must be obvious, and we have only marked the equivocal nature of her language by Italics. If the whole was not as defective in reasoning as in propriety, we should not for a moment have indulged a smile. The object of this dedication, and indeed of her whole work, is to show that women should participate in the advantages of education and knowledge, that they may be more suitable companions for their husbands, better tutors in the earlier periods of their children’s lives, and more useful active citizens. When she steps from the stilts of patriotism, and omits the last object, she reasons with accuracy and propriety; not always indeed in a regular method, or by a well compacted chain of argument, but sometimes with a force carrying conviction. When we proceed to examine the subject more closely, and enquire into the degree of education and mental improvement necessary, we suspect that we must greatly differ. Are the mental powers to be regulated only, and generally informed, or are the sciences to be regularly taught? If a young woman be led to examine a subject coolly, to compare different arguments, to estimate the different degrees of evidence which each subject admits of, and to trace with some attention the evolutions of the human mind: above all, if she indulges a habit of reflection, and is neither afraid nor ashamed to look at her own errors, and investigate their source, she will be a more pleasing companion, a better wife and mother, a more useful member of society. All this a frequent reflection, and the conversation of a sensible man, will teach better than books, if we except those general essays, which, while they improve the mental faculties, add to the stock of ideas;

‘hominem’ is a word, in this instance, peculiarly happy, for it means man or woman—either exclusively man, or those *manly females* who endeavour to imitate men.

and those works, which instruct the mind by the experience of former ages, or trace its exertions in different circumstances; we allude to history and travels, for we, *at present*, exclude the more elegant works of entertainment.

If we examine the sciences to be taught, it will be necessary to consider a previous question, how far there is a sexual difference in minds. Physicians have told us, and we have reason to think their account, as it is derived from the observation of succeeding ages, true, that different bodily constitutions are connected with minds of different faculties and powers. They have distinguished the volatile, choleric, temperament from the slower and more steady melancholic, the one which rapidly attains and soon loses, from the other more capable of attention, requiring greater diligence, and more carefully retaining the ideas acquired. Even a poet, no common observer of men and manners (we mean Horace), has distinguished the volatile youth from the more steady adult. If then there are similar constitutional differences in women, must we deny that there is not some difference in their minds? To examine facts: France boasts the marquise de Chatelet, and Mademoiselle Keralio; England Mrs. Carter, and Mrs. Macaulay; in criticism each nation has produced a madame Dacier and Mrs. Montague. Their works deserve praise; but we seek in vain that profound spirit of investigation, those deep comprehensive views, that calm intuitive penetration, which have distinguished the works of *many* men on similar subjects. It is usual, we know, on the strength of these names, to challenge the men; but they need not fear the contest. If those, who have spent their lives in their peculiar studies, do not rise to superior excellence, unless compared with women, we must suppose some constitutional defect; if we cannot blame the culture, the soil must be less fruitful. If miss Wollstonecraft means only that the understandings and intellectual attainments of some men are superior to those of some women, the contest is at an end, and we freely confess that we know women who would excel in the office of premier, even (with deference be it spoken) some members of the house of commons. But this forms no exception; for, if the general change, which our author recommends in national education were to take effect, the state would lose 10,000 useful domestic wives, in pursuit of one very indifferent philosopher or statesman. With these premises then before us, we shall proceed to examine our author's work, and let us only add, in excuse of the ludicrous turn we have given to some of this lady's sentences, that she has herself a little too freely alluded to the communication of sexes. Even in the Dedication, she speaks of the 'essence of

C. R. N. AR. (IV.) April, 1792. E e sensuality,

'sensuality' having been extracted in France 'to regale the voluptuary, and that a kind of sentimental lust has prevailed; of the calls of *appetite*, &c. Nor is this fault confined to the Dedication: it pervades the whole. Surely Mrs. Cowley did not tacitly allude to these improprieties, when, in the preface to her last comedy, she spoke of the work before us as containing 'a body of mind.'

In the Introduction miss Wollstonecraft explains more particularly her object. She allows the physical superiority of the males, but wishes to give the ladies strength of body and mind, to induce them to look on 'refinement of taste,' 'delicate sentiments,' and 'susceptibility of heart' as weakness and the means of slavish dependence. Such beings she thinks objects of pity, and the kind of love which these qualities inspire, contemptible.—To acquire habits of reflection, self-command, firmness, and resolution, are undoubtedly proper: to discard the softer feelings, refinement of taste, and delicacy of sentiment is, we think, to be no longer women. We are sure we speak the sense of mankind, when we say it is to be no longer amiable, attractive, or interesting.

The first chapter contains the consideration of the rights and involved duties of mankind. Its object is to show the disadvantages which flow from the superiority of distinction, from monarchy and hereditary honours. Miss Wollstonecraft falls into the error which we noticed in our review of her first pamphlet, viz. vague inconclusive reasoning from imperfect ideas, and the want of a well-digested plan. The observations we shall transcribe relate to Rousseau's defence of a state of solitude; and the following is the reasoning, and the language, that is to defend the Rights of Women.

' When that wise Being who created us and placed us here, saw the fair idea, willed, by allowing it to be so, that the passions should unfold our reason, because he could see that present evil would produce future good. Could the helpless creature whom he called from nothing break loose from his providence, and boldly learn to know good by practising evil, without his permission? No.—How could that egernetic advocate for immortality argue so inconsistently? Had mankind remained for ever in the brutal state of nature, which even his magic pen cannot paint as a state in which a single virtue took root, it would have been clear, though not to the *sensitive unreflecting wanderer*, that man was born to run the circle of life and death, and adorn God's garden for some purpose which could not easily be reconciled with his attributes.

' But if, to crown the whole, there were to be rational creatures produced, allowed to rise in excellence by the exercise of powers implanted for that purpose; if benignity itself thought

fit to call into existence a creature above the brutes*, who could think and improve himself, why should that inestimable gift, for a gift it was, if man was so created as to have a capacity to rise above the state in which sensation produced brutal ease, be called, in direct terms, a curse? A curse it might be reckoned, if all our existence was bounded by our continuance in this world; for why should the gracious fountain of life give us passions, and the power of reflecting, only to imbitter our days and inspire us with mistaken notions of dignity? Why should he lead us from love of ourselves to the sublime emotions which the discovery of his wisdom and goodness excites, if these feelings were not set in motion to improve our nature, of which they make a part, and render us capable of enjoying a more godlike portion of happiness? Firmly persuaded that no evil exists in the world that God did not design to take place, I build my belief on the perfection of God.²

First, the creature produced is not rational, and yet he is to reflect, and to discover what is within the powers of reason only. Next he is rational, and what does his reason lead him to? to a future state: certainly, but what is the connection of this part of the subject with the gregarious nature of animals, or the social qualities of man? The philosopher will smile at the note, when he perceives that animals, not gregarious, are supposed not to *pair*, since to pair is mentioned as the distinction of being gregarious. Might we venture? No, we dare not hint at the *unpaired* state of this advocate of the social nature of man. The comparison between the weak, insipid minds of *some* officers (our author must allow us to limit her position) and fashionable women, is very just: similar causes will generally produce similar effects, and the boasted strength of mind, even of lordly man, is not proof against the enervating causes; the lion, that has been stinted in his growth, either by accident or design, will never become the terror of the forest.

Our author next discusses the prevailing opinion of sexual character†. This title does not convey a proper idea of the two chapters in which the subject is contained. The object is to show that women have been unfairly treated. Instead of the sweet attractive grace, mild, docile, blind obedience, tenderness, affection, and all the softer passions of the mind, the severer studies should have been inculcated, and the firmer vir-

* * Contrary to the opinion of anatomists, who argue by analogy from the formation of the teeth, stomach, and intestines. Rousseau will not allow a man to be a carnivorous animal. And carried away from nature by a love of system, he disputes whether man be a gregarious animal, though the long and helpless state of infancy seems to point him out as particularly impelled to pair.

† Miss Wollstonecraft has not been explicit in defining the meaning of sexual character; and we therefore do not fully understand the meaning of her assertion in the 'Summary,' that there are no sexual virtues, not even *modesty*!

ties cherished. To a certain extent, we can agree with our fair author. Women have been considered too frequently as the idols of the senses, as the objects of amusement in the moments of pleasure. Their minds have been looked on as barren wastes, the cultivation of which would be useless, or unprofitable. This conduct is undoubtedly erroneous: women are the companions of man, and the companions of a rational creature should possess reason not totally uncultivated. Yet, on the other hand, man is not merely rational: sense and judgment are requisite for his conduct, and the softer affections claim their share; affections which women feel more acutely, in which their sensibility is more refined, and their taste more exquisite. These affections are equally a part of man, and, in these, if we understand miss Wollstonecraft rightly, woman is to have no share. Reason and virtue are to form the whole of both characters.—As we have already stated our opinion of the sexual differences of mind, we may venture to produce the following attack on Rousseau, with commendation. The few exceptions we should make will be easily perceived; and these are certainly not against the moral virtues, of which women in general feel the force more acutely, and even practise more severely than men.

‘ Women are, therefore, to be considered either as moral beings, or so weak that they must be entirely subjected to the superior faculties of men.

‘ Let us examine this question. Rousseau declares that a woman should never, for a moment, feel herself independent, that she should be governed by fear to exercise her *natural* cunning, and made a coquettish slave in order to render her a more alluring object of desire, a *sweeter* companion to man, whenever he chooses to relax himself. He carries the arguments, which he pretends to draw from the indications of nature, still further, and insinuates that truth and fortitude, the corner stones of all human virtue, should be cultivated with certain restrictions, because, with respect to the female character, obedience is the grand lesson which ought to be impressed with unrelenting rigour.

‘ What nonsense! when will a great man arise with sufficient strength of mind to puff away the fumes which pride and sensuality have thus spread over the subject! if women are by nature inferior to men, their virtues must be the same in quality, if not in degree, for virtue is a relative idea; consequently, their conduct should be founded on the same principles, and have the same aim.

‘ Connected with man as daughters, wives, and mothers, their moral character may be estimated by their manner of fulfilling those simple duties; but the end, the grand end of their exertions should be to unfold their own faculties and acquire the dignity of conscious-

conscious virtue. They may try to render their road pleasant; but ought never to forget, in common with man, that life yields not the felicity which can satisfy an immortal soul. I do not mean to insinuate, that either sex should be so lost in abstract reflections or distant views, as to forget the affections and duties that lie before them, and are, in truth, the means appointed to produce the fruit of life; on the contrary, I would warmly recommend them, even while I assert, that they afford most satisfaction when they are considered in their true subordinate light.'

Miss Wollstonecraft attacks Dr. Gregory also with some success. His system of reserve and dissimulation we think evidently wrong; and, though Dr. Gregory possessed the more amiable virtues in the highest degree, his system of female excellence was formed in consequence of confined views, and a state of society, neither the best, nor the most eligible. Two passages of a different nature we shall transcribe.

' Of the same complexion is Dr. Gregory's advice respecting delicacy of sentiment, which he advises a woman not to acquire, if she has determined to marry. This determination, however, perfectly consistent with his former advice, he calls *indelicate*, and earnestly persuades his daughters to conceal it, though it may govern their conduct: as if it were *indelicate* to have the common appetites of human nature.'

' How women are to exist in that state where there is to be neither marrying nor giving in marriage, we are not told. For though moralists have agreed that the tenor of life seems to prove that *man* is prepared by various circumstances for a future state, they constantly concur in advising *woman* only to provide for the present. Gentleness, docility, and a spaniel-like affection are, on this ground, consistently recommended as the cardinal virtues of the sex; and, disregarding the arbitrary economy of nature, one writer has declared that it is masculine for a woman to be melancholy. She was created to be the toy of man, his rattle, and it must jingle in his ears whenever, dismissing reason, he chooses to be amused.'

Of such vague inconclusive reasoning, strung together with little art, and no apparent plan, do these chapters consist. The whole is an indignant invective against treating women merely as toys, as the amusement of an idle moment, and as gratifying (our author sets the example of the language), the calls of appetite. We might cull some passages, so inconsistent is our author, in which she supports our opinions; and some writers, particularly Shakespeare, whose nervous mind she commends, might be adduced, as by no means agreeing with this author in his opinion of women. But this would be a petty

warfare. We want not to prove miss Wollstonecraft inconsistent, either in her doctrines or her example. We wish to take up the question on its most solid ground—Have the qualifications of the two sexes been mistaken? Are the ladies entitled from their natural powers, taken collectively, to lead, or even to rival the men in scientific pursuits, in the labours of the mind? We have shown, in general, what must be the answer to these questions; and we find, in our comprehensive view, we have anticipated several remarks which had occurred to us in perusing particular passages of these chapters.

(To be concluded in our next Number.)

The Pleasures of Memory, a Poem, in Two Parts. By the Author of 'An Ode to Superstition, with some other Poems.'
4to. 3s. 6d. Cadell. 1792.

THE flame of genius which pervaded, and so brightly glowed in the Ode to Superstition, demanded our applause, which we shall not withhold from the present poem, though exhibiting less splendid marks of poetical inspiration; more argumentative and metaphysical. We must likewise make some deductions on account of a few passages not so carefully written as they might have been.

‘ The intrepid Swiss, that guards a foreign shore,
Condemn’d to climb his mountain-cliffs no mere,
If chance he hear that song so sweetly wild,
His heart would spring to hear it, when a child;
That song, as simple as the joys he knew,
When in the shepherd-dance he blithely flew;
Melts at the long-lost scenes that round him rise,
And sinks a martyr to repentant sighs.’

We cannot reconcile the fourth, the seventh and eighth lines to grammar. Indeed, according to their proper arrangement, the fifth and sixth should follow the third; then the fourth, &c. in which some necessary words, such as the following, appear to have been omitted. ‘ His heart (*which*) sprung to hear it, when a child,’—or, ‘ his heart would spring to hear it (*as*) when a child, (*would*) melt at the long-lost scenes, and sink a *martyr*, &c. We do not thoroughly approve of the heart’s being styled a ‘ *martyr*,’ nor of ‘ flying in the shepherd dance.’ This word seems rather pressed into the service in another place. The negroe slave is described as expecting after death to wake again on Congo’s shore, and

‘ Beneath his plantain’s ancient shade, renew
The simple transports that *with freedom flew*.’

Again

Again,

‘ The school’s lone porch, with reverend mosses gray,
Just tells the pensive pilgrim where it lay.’

Should we not have had *stood* instead of *lay*, if the rhyme would have admitted it? — Some few expressions are rather confused.

‘ That hall, where once, in antiquated state,
The chair of justice held the grave debate.’

The chair of justice, figuratively speaking, might *bear*, but those who urge their complaints against each other before it, properly speaking, ‘ hold the debate.’ These lines form part of the description of an old mansion in the country, where the author is supposed to have spent his youthful days; and the revisiting which affects him with those pleasing, though melancholy, sensations that the feeling mind on such an occasion always experiences. The passage which follows them speaks to the heart, and is replete with poetical beauties.

‘ Now stain’d with dews, with cobwebs darkly hung,
Oft has its roof with peals of rapture rung ;
When round yon ample board, in due degree,
We sweeten’d every meal with social glee.
The heart’s light laughter crown’d the circling jest ;
And all was sunshine in each little breast.
’Twas here we chas’d the slipper by its sound ;
And turn’d the blindfold hero round and round.
’Twas here, at eve, we form’d our fairy ring ;
And fancy flutter’d on her wildest wing.
Giants and genii chain’d the wondering ear ;
And orphan woes drew Nature’s ready tear.
Oft with the babes we wander’d in the wood,
Or view’d the forest-feats of Robin Hood :
Oft, fancy-led, at midnight’s fearful hour,
With startling step we scal’d the lonely tow’r ;
O’er infant innocence to hang and weep,
Murder’d by ruffian hands, when smiling in its sleep.

‘ Ye household deities ! whose guardian eye
Mark’d each pure thought, ere register’d on high ;
Still, still ye walk the consecrated ground,
And breathe the soul of inspiration round.

‘ As o’er the dusky furniture I bend,
Each chair awakes the feelings of a friend.
The storied arras, source of fond delight,
With old achievement charms the wilder’d sight ;
And still, with heraldry’s rich hues imprest,
On the dim window glows the pictur’d crest.

The screen unfolds its many-colour'd chart.
 The clock still points its moral to the heart.
 That faithful monitor 'twas heav'n to hear !
 When soft it spoke a promis'd pleasure near :
 And has its sober hand, its simple chime,
 Forgot to trace the feather'd feet of 'Time ?
 That massive beam, with curious carvings wrought,
 Whence the caged linnet sooth'd my pensive thought ;
 Those muskets cas'd with venerable rust ;
 Those once-lov'd forms, still breathing thro' their dust,
 Still from the frame, in mould gigantic cast,
 Starting to life— all whisper of the past !

‘ As thro' the garden's desert paths I rove,
 What fond illusions swarm in every grove !
 How oft, when purple evening ting'd the west,
 He watch'd the enmet to her grainy nest ;
 Welcom'd the wild bee home on wearied wing,
 Laden with sweets, the choicest of the spring !
 How oft inscrib'd, with friendship's votive rhyme,
 The bark now silver'd by the touch of Time ;
 Soar'd in the swing, half pleas'd and half afraid,
 Thro' sister elms that wav'd their summer shade ;
 Or strew'd with crumbs yon root-inwoven seat,
 To lure the red-breast from his lone retreat !

‘ Childhood's lov'd group revisits every scene,
 The tangled wood-walk and the tufted green !
 Indulgent memory wakes, and, lo ! they live !
 Cloth'd with far softer hues than light can give,
 Thou last best friend that heav'n assigns below,
 To sooth and sweeten all the cares we know ;
 Whose glad suggestions still each vain alarm,
 When nature fades, and life forgets to charm ;
 Thee would the muse invoke !— to thee belong
 The sage's precept, and the poet's song.’

We have one tale in this performance to exemplify the subject, and illustrate the influence of Memory in solitude, sickness, and sorrow. It is, on the whole, extremely beautiful, but marked by several defects. Florio, ‘ a blithe and blooming forester,’ rises early with his gun,

‘ Eager to bid the mountain-echoes wake,
 And shoot the wild-fowl of the silver lake.
 High on exulting wing the heath-cock rose,
 And blew his shrill blast o'er perennial snows.’

At first view it appears as if the heathcock was introduced as one of these water-birds; what is meant by his ‘ blowing

his shrill blast,' we know not; nor the meaning of the epithet 'ambush'd' in our subsequent quotation: at least we think it improperly applied. It cannot properly signify concealed or hidden, as it displayed 'the smile of welcome; ' nor treacherous, as it conducted Florio to a welcome reception.

' When, lo ! an ambush'd path the smile of welcome wore,
Imbowering shrubs with verdure veil'd the sky,
And on the musk-rose shed a deeper dye.'

Here again, though we will allow that trees may, in the language of poetry, lift their verdure to the sky, or clothe it in verdure, yet we cannot easily conceive how humble shrubs should have a similar or greater effect. From the musk-rose being in blossom, and the opening lines of the story, it appears that Florio commenced his expedition in the Spring or summer; a season in which no sportsman would pursue the 'wild-fowl of the lake.' Some few other defects occur in the subsequent parts of the story, but they are over-powered by its beauties; and the reader will be better pleased with our transcript of its conclusion, than with so ungracious an exhibition.

' The father strew'd his white hairs in the wind,
Call'd on his child — nor linger'd long behind :
And Florio liv'd to see the willow wave,
With many an evening whisper, o'er their grave.
Yes, Florio liv'd — and still of each posset,
The father cherish'd, and the maid caress'd !

' For ever would the fond enthusiast rove,
With Julia's spirit, thro' the shadowy grove ;
Gaze with delight on every scene she plann'd,
Kiss every flowret planted by her hand.

Ah ! still he traced her steps along the glade,
When hazy hues and glimmering lights betray'd
Half-viewless forms ; still listen'd as the breeze
Heav'd its deep sobs among the aged trees ;
And at each pause her melting accents caught,
In sweet delirium of romantic thought !

Dear was the grot that shunn'd the blaze of day ;
She gave it spars to shoot a trembling ray.

The spring, that bubbled from its inmost cell,
Murmur'd of Julia's virtues as it fell ;
And o'er the dripping moss, the fretted stone,
In Florio's ear breath'd language not its own.
Her charm around th' enchantress Memory threw,
A charm that soothes the mind, and sweetens too !'

The author, in conformity to Locke, supposes that superior beings are blest with a nobler exercise of this faculty: he imagines,

gines, likewise, that the spirits of the dead (and a soothing reflection it is), are not inattentive to the concerns of their former friends. This leads him to a sublime address, or invocation, to the spirit of a deceased brother, and the following elegant apostrophe to the subject of his poem, with which it concludes.

‘ Hail, Memory, hail ! in thy exhaustless mine,
From age to age unnumber’d treasures shine !
Thought and her shadowy brood thy call obey,
And place and Time are subject to thy sway !
Thy pleasures most we feel, when most alone ;
The only pleasures we can call our own.
Lighter than air, Hope’s summer-visions die,
If but a fleeting cloud obscure the sky ;
If but a beam of sober reason play,
Lo, fancy’s fairy frost-work melts away !
But can the wiles of art, the grasp of power,
Snatch the rich relics of a well spent hour ?
These, when the trembling spirit wings her flight,
Pour round her path a stream of living light ;
And gild those pure and perfect realms of rest,
Where virtue triumphs, and her sons are blest.’

A Translation of all the Pythian, Nemean, and Isthmian Odes of Pindar, except the fourth and fifth Pythian Odes, and those Odes which have been translated by the late Gilbert West, Esq. By the Rev. J. Banister. 8vo. 5s. boards. Wilkie. 1791.

WE can see no reason why Mr. Banister, whose abilities are certainly equal to the undertaking, should except the fourth and the fifth Pythian Odes. They are likewise left untouched by Mr. Tasker in his late publication, and therefore a fairer object for this gentleman’s undertaking.

The narrative in the fourth Ode is, it must be confessed, rather flat and tedious ; but it contains some curious circumstances relative to Jason and the Argonautic expedition : nor is it quite devoid of poetical passages. That hero’s dress and appearance is well described, and the joy of Aeson, on his unexpected return, natural and affecting.

Θερινή γυναικεία οφθαλμος πατρος
Εις δ' αριστην πομφολυξαν
Δακρυσα γηραλεων βλεφαριν,
Αι περι φυγαινεις
Γαθησιν εχαιρετον,
Γενερι ιδειν καλλισον αρδεων.

The

The following lines will convey the sense, but not the spirit, to the English reader.

The dome he enters, and the father's eyes
Sudden his long-lost Jason recognise.
Down his wan cheek the tears swift streaming flow;
But speechless captures in his bosom glow,
To view his son adorn'd with every grace;
His son, the loveliest of the human race.

This description will not strike every reader as much as it deserves. It is an original draught from nature; but has been copied and familiarised to us by a number of succeeding poets. The intercession for Demophilus, which succeeds, and who had been exiled by Arcesilaus, king of Cyrene, to whose honour the Ode was composed, though likewise a little too long, is sometimes forcible, and sometimes pathetic. The fifth is chiefly confined to his praise, and sprinkled with some moral sentiments and flowers of poetry.

The Olympic Odes, omitted by Mr. West, are not attempted by Mr. Banister, 'on account, he says, of Mr. Pye's spirited and poetical translation.' To these gentlemen we consider him as scarcely inferior in spirit and elegance; we must except, however, some highly finished passages in Mr. West's translation, which are superior to all competition. Mr. Banister, like him, indulges himself in pretty great liberties with respect to the original; and often paraphrases rather than translates. Mr. Tasker's fidelity is superior to our present author's; but he is excelled by him in elegance and harmony. The liberties he takes are, however, in general, very excusable. Few of the Greek poets will bear a close version, and Pindar, we think, less than any. Cowley remarks, that 'his Pegasus flings writer and reader too, that fits not sure.' His smoke has undoubtedly sometimes been mistaken for fire; and his flights, however sublime, are desultory and unequal. We find in Athenæus, that within about one hundred years after his death, in the time of Eupolis the comedian, his Odes were fallen into contempt, and the prince of lyric bards was the frequent object of Aristophanes' satire. But it was not, always a disgrace to be ridiculed by Aristophanes, and no stress can be laid on the fluctuation of public taste. Pindar is again restored to his deserved honours; and though we cannot think his rambling dithyrambics always entitled to our unqualified praise, his rational piety (some allowance must be made for the time in which he lived), and sublime morality, often excite our warmest approbation.

A striking instance occurs towards the conclusion of the eighth Pythian Ode,

! Those

• Those who enjoy a rich and affluent state
 Are view'd with wonder by the gazing throng,
 Who think that to superior rank belong
 Superior talents. But in reason's scale,
 If not conjoin'd with virtue, nought avail
 Such tinsel honours. Our attempts are vain,
 Unless the gods assist or wealth or power to gain:
 Their hands alone direct the course of fate,
 To raise the humble from their fallen state,
 Or teach the proud and insolent to feel
 The sad reverse of fortune's giddy wheel.
 Thus by the guidance of the powers above,
 In quick succession, human glories move:
 But, Aristomenus, the same success
 Continues still thy brave attempts to bless.'

• Four noble youths beneath thy hand
 Fell vanquish'd on the Pythian sand.
 Unhappy fate! With many a tear
 And look dejected they return,
 And oft their sad disaster mourn;
 No tender mother comes to cheer
 Their hopes with smiles of heart-felt joy,
 But through the streets they run, with wild affright,
 And shun the happy victor's sight,
 While self-tormenting thoughts their minds employ.
 But those, the favour'd few of heaven,
 To whom a happier lot is given,
 By whom the victor's wreath is worn,
 Beyond their hopes to honours rais'd,
 By every tongue their virtues prais'd,
 And on the wings of rumour borne:
 Not wealth can give such joys refin'd;
 But soon our glory rises to a blaze,
 And ah! too soon the sick'ning flame decays,
 Shook by misfortune's cruel wind!
 Ah what is man! A being of a day!
 A something! nothing! vanishing away
 Like the thin shadow of a flitting dream,
 On which should Jove with eye benignant beam
 A slender portion of his heavenly light,
 Soon would it glow with colours warm and bright;
 In wealth and peace our happy days would flow,
 Unhurt by guilt, and undisturb'd by woe.'

The passage describing the return of the unsuccessful combatants is not strictly exact to the original, nor equal to it in beauty.

————— 'Τοις οὐτε οὐρανοῖς οὐμας

Ἐπαλπνος εν Γυθι—
—αδι κριθη, οδε μολοντων
Παρ ματερ, αμφι γελως
Γλυκις αρσεν χαριν κατα λαυρας
Δ' εχθρων απαρος πτωσσοντι, συμ—
—φεα δεδαιγμενοι.

An expression *, towards the conclusion, greatly resembles that in the Wisdom of Solomon † (ii. 5.) 'For our time is a very shadow that passes away:' and the reflection that follows is worthy an inspired writer.

In the opening of the eighth Nemean Ode we find a warm panegyric on beauty and virtuous love. The translation does not appear inferior to the original; and with this pleasing specimen we shall close our article.

'Beauty rever'd by men below and gods above,
Herald of Venus and ambrosial love,
Delighting still to fix thy seat
On virgin eyelids, soft and sweet,
Those happy few enjoy thy kind regards,
Whose souls serene and pure, religion guards,
While others, led astray by wild desires,
Are doom'd to burn in unextinguish'd fires;
'Tis wisdom's part to seize the present hour,
While bloom the sweets of youth's fair op'ning flower,
To shun the dangerous snares of lawless love,
Content it's chaste and calm delights to prove.'

The New London Medical Journal. Vol. I. 8vo. 2s. 6d.
Deighton. 1792.

THOUGH periodical publications, especially such as offer opinions, and consequently are connected with our own plan, can scarcely be, with propriety, the object of our notice, yet however delicate the task, we cannot, *when called on*, decline our duty; nor can we refuse the Editors of the New London Medical Journal the attention which we have lately bestowed on Medical Facts and Opinions, and which we have, for many years, paid to Dr. Duncan's Commentaries.

The London Medical Journal, it is now well known, has yielded to a similar work, published after longer intervals, under the title of 'Medical Facts and Opinions.' The title was either too popular to be wholly lost, or the plan of more frequent publication too advantageous to be at once resigned.

* Επαλπνος.—εκιας ονας Διθρωποι.

† Σικις γας παροδος ο βιος ημων.

The New Medical Journal is the consequence either of the bookseller's sagacity, or the editor's judgment; and we own that we are not displeased with the attempt. From opinions delivered with candour mankind must be benefited, though they should disagree; and the world will naturally attend to those who may best deserve it. The work before us is designed to convey an account of such cases as, either from the progress or treatment, deserve to be recorded. The editor's mean not, however, to exclude other medical essays of a more general and theoretical nature, meaning chiefly, in the latter department, those disquisitions which trace any disease to its cause, or detect the operation of a common cause operating differently, according to the effects of situation, climate, or constitution. Original essays on chemistry are also to be admitted. A careful and concise abstract of medical publications is to follow, particularly of those foreign works, and medical or philosophical journals, connected with their plan. Medical news of every kind, with biographical memoirs of eminent persons, and a list of the new medical publications, are to conclude each Number.

A very slight knowledge of the numerous publications in medicine, and the sciences connected with it, will show that this plan is very little proportioned to the extent of a quarterly publication of the size before us. If our authors cull only the choicest, they will find little room for original essays. If they go back, as they have done, to works published some years since, their difficulties will be increased. We must repeat too what we have often had occasion to notice, that, in collections of essays, furnished by voluntary assistants, complaisance, the partiality of friendship, and many other motives, will greatly lessen the value of communications. With these hints the editors will probably not be offended: we meant to assist, not to injure their work. It is next necessary to consider particular essays.

Case of bony Excrecence on the Inside of the Jaw, by Edward Harrison, M. D. Physician at Horncastle, Lincolnshire.—The excrecence consisted of bony fibres, shooting from the diseased periosteum. It was removed by a chissel, and prevented from returning by the application of a caustic. The editors mention two similar cases from Mr. Hunter's lectures, where the disease returned on account of the periosteum not being destroyed by the caustic. That used by Dr. Harrison was the corrosive sublimate.

Case of Nasal Hæmorrhage, with Petechiæ. By the same.—It was a case of scury from scanty diet, and unalimentary provisions. Our author employed the St. Lucia bark with opium; the former in doses much too small.

An Account of the Discovery of Azote, or Phlogisticated Air, in the Mineral Waters of Harrogate. By T. Garnett, M. D. Physician at Harrogate.—Our knowledge of the aerial contents of mineral waters is increasing. This is the first instance of phlogisticated air having been found in cold waters: the medical effects are yet to be ascertained. Dr. Garnett's explanation of the method, by which the waters may have been impregnated with this air, is ingenious; but we suspect the operation is not so extensive, as to account for the whole of the air, and many other sources might be suggested.

A Case of Tænia, or Tape-Worm, cured by Flowers of Sulphur. By the same.—The dose of the sulphur taken was half an ounce, and it is certainly an easy remedy for a case so distressing, and which often ends in atrophy. It has been often mentioned by other authors.

Observations on Venesection in Thoracic Inflammation; with a Case. By Mr. Stringer, Surgeon, Reigate in Surry.—Mr. Stringer, in this essay, proposes some doubts and difficulties of which he does not appear to see the full extent. That there are inflammations of the lungs, which will not bear bleeding, we well know; but that they proceed from acrimony, and are to be relieved by opium, is doubtful. His instance is that of a man who attempted to hang himself. He had convulsions with symptoms of apoplexy. Copious and sudden depletion of the venous system did not do service; but the convulsions were quieted by 50 drops of the *tinctoria Thebaica*. This subject, with the case, would require a very long discussion. In inflammations of the lungs, opium is of very doubtful effect, even when they are attended with putrid fever; and, in the instance recorded, we suspect that the convulsions, produced by fullness of the vessels, were continued from debility and irritability.

This is the substance of the five essays recorded in this Number; and, in general, they do not appear to us to be such communications as the plan requires. If we except Dr. Garnett's essay, we must own that little is added to the stock of medical knowledge by the present collection.—But in this respect, the Journal may probably improve.

The first work noticed in the second department is the London Medical Journal in its new form, or rather the original observations on cases recorded, for the editors do not mention the works analysed in that publication. This plan is, we think, neither delicate nor political: it is not delicate, as it appropriates, a little unfairly, the labours of their predecessor, under the new title; and it is not political, as the comparison is not very favourable. As a collection of medical papers, it was undoubtedly within their plan; as a continuation

tion of the London Medical Journal, it would have been better to have passed it over.—To this collection no remarks are subjoined.

The Asiatic Researches; Fordyce's Treatise on Digestion; Dr. Austin's Treatise on the Origin and component Parts of the Stone in the Bladder; some Papers from the Journal de Physique, October 1791; and some from the Annals of Chemistry for August and September 1791; Extracts from the Memoirs of the Royal Academy at Turin 1788, and 1789; as well as from the second Part of the Philosophical Transactions of last Year, are the other works analysed in this part of the Journal. From the Medical News we shall select two or three articles.

‘ Extract of a Letter from Venice, Sept. 10, 1791.

‘ A poor man, lying under the frightful tortures of the hydrophobia, was cured with some draughts of vinegar, given him by mistake instead of another potion. A physician of Padua, called *count Leonissa*, got intelligence of this event at Udine, and tried the same remedy upon a patient that was brought to the Padua hospital, administering him a pint of vinegar in the morning, another at noon, and a third at sunset, and the man was speedily and perfectly cured.’

‘ In the Gazzette Salutaire it is said, that M. Dufresnoy has cured twenty-eight cases of consumption, *la phthisie tuberculeuse*, by the use of a species of mushroom (*agaricus piperatus et deliciosus Linn.*) conjoined with an opiate—as mushrooms approximate to the nature of animal food, does not this fact corroborate the plan of treatment recommended by Dr. Percival, and other late writers?’

‘ Extract of a Letter from Edinburgh, Nov. 10.

‘ Dr. Hamilton's method of treating dropsies by giving mercury nearly to the point of salivation, previous to the exhibition of diuretics, is attended with great success.—The New College will be a magnificent and commodious building.—Dr. Black has espoused the antiphlogistic doctrine, and uses the French nomenclature in his class.—Dr. Gregory is said to be engaged in a metaphysical work.’

Hogarth illustrated, by John Ireland. 2 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d.
boards. Boydells. 1791.

THE deserved popularity of the works of Hogarth renders any good commentary upon them a desirable publication. The meagre and uninformed work of Mr. Trusler, intituled, *A Life of Hogarth*

Hogarth Moralised, is deservedly superseded by Mr. Ireland's superior labours: the plates in Trusler's book, engraved by one Dent, whose name we recollect not to have seen affixed to other engravings, are retained in this work, and some new plates are added.

The first feature which struck us, in perusing Mr. Ireland's commentary, is its garrulity, sometimes entertaining, sometimes dull: the second is a singular foppish quaintness of expression, which often stains his pages. As to the plates, the new ones are well engraved; and it would have been more worthy of Mess. Boydells' opulence and taste, and the favour they have received from the public, not to mention their own interest and reputation, to have accompanied the work with a complete set of new engravings, of the same size as the printed page, than to have been contented with late and bad impressions of Dent's flat miniatures. The most proper form would have been an oblong octavo.

After having offered these general remarks, we shall proceed to a particular specification of this work. Mr. Ireland's short Introduction, or rather advertisement, is in the following terms.

‘ Mr. Hogarth frequently asserted, that no man was so ill qualified to form a true judgment of pictures as the professed connoisseur; whose taste being originally formed upon *imitations*, and confined to the manners of masters, had seldom any reference to nature. Under this conviction, his subjects were selected for the crowd, rather than the critic; and explained in that universal language common to the world, rather than in the *lingua technica* of the arts, which is sacred to the scientific.

‘ Without presuming to support his hypothesis, I have endeavoured to follow his example; and not being vain enough to think I can make any material addition to the knowledge of either *virtuoso* or *collector*, with all due deference, make my apology.

‘ My original design was to have comprised, in two hundred pages, a moral and analytical description of about eighty prints; and during the progress of the first series, this plan was adhered to. As the work advanced, such variety of anecdote, and long train of *etcetera*, imperceptibly clung to the narrative, that the limits were found too narrow. With the explanation of fifteen new plates, the letter press has expanded to more than seven hundred pages.

‘ Where the artist has been made a victim to poetical or political prejudice, without meaning to be his panegyrist, I have endeavoured to rescue his memory from unmerited obloquy. Where his works have been misconceived, or misrepresented, I have attempted the *true reading*. In my essay at an illustration of the

C. R. N. AR. (IV.) April, 1792. F f prints,

prints, with a description of what I conceive the comic and moral tendency of each, there is the best information I could procure, concerning the relative circumstances, occasionally interspersed with such desultory conversation, as occurred in turning over a volume of his prints. Though these notes may not always have an immediate relation to the engravings, I hope they will seldom be found wholly unconnected with the subjects.

‘ Such mottos as were engraved on the plates, are inserted; but where a print has been published without inscription, I have either selected or written one. Errors in either parody or verse, with the signature E. the writer submits to that tribunal, from whose candour he hopes pardon for every mistake, or inaccuracy, which may be found in his volumes.’

We must beg leave to remind Mr. Ireland, that it is of all things the easiest to expand a work by hasty compilation, carelessness, and want of selection, while it requires time and labour, and some respect for the public, to render a work short, and to lay before the world only the essence of one’s thoughts and information; a compliment which it expects, and is entitled to receive, from every writer who aspires to any reputation. We do not wish, however, to be severe, as the very nature of Mr. Ireland’s commentary, and of the original text, requires a portion of trivial information, which might become ridiculous if conveyed in a precise manner: but we think the happy medium for Mr. Ireland’s book would have been a volume not exceeding 400 pages; as it is, there is a great waste of paper, ink, and chit-chat.

The account of Hogarth, which follows, is in a great measure taken from Mr. Nichols’s anecdotes of this great painter of nature; and we could wish to have seen our author more frequently acknowledge his obligations to the same source, in the other pages of his motley miscellany. In this division of the work is given the explanation of a new plate (for so we shall style those not to be found in Trusler’s book), the battle of the pictures. Mr. Ireland, in a note, offers some well-timed remarks on the gross impositions of picture-dealers: as a caution on this subject cannot be too widely diffused, and as *ridiculum acri fortius et melius*, &c. we shall present our virtuosi readers with the following bill, not found a true bill, but *ben trovato*, and dated 1791.

• Monsieur Varnish to Benjamin Bister, debtor.	1.	s.	d.
• To painting the woman caught in adultery, upon a green ground, by Hans Holbein	3	3	0
• To Solomon’s wife judgment, on pannel, by Michael Angelo Buenorati	2	12	6
• To painting and canvas for a naked Mary Magdalén, in the undoubted style of Paul Veronese	2	2	0
			‘ To

• To brimstone, for smoking ditto.	0 2 6
• Paid Mrs. W — for a live model to sit for Diana bathing, by Tinteretto —	0 16 8
• Paid for the hire of a layman, to copy the robes of a cardinal, for a Vandyke —	0 5 0
• Portrait of a nun doing penance, by Albert Durer —	2 2 0
• Paid the female figure for sitting thirty minutes in a wet sheet, that I might give the dry manner of that master —	0 10 6
• The Tribute-money rendered, with all the exactness of Quintin Metsius, the famed blacksmith of Antwerp —	2 12 6
• To Ruth at the feet of Boaz, upon an oak board, by Titiano —	3 3 0
• St. Anthony preaching to the Fishes, by Salvator Rosa — —	3 10 0
• The Martydom of St. Winifred, with a view of Holywell bath, by old Frank —	1 11 6
• To a large allegorical altar-piece, consisting of men and angels, horses and river gods; 'tis thought most happily hit off for a Rubens.	5 5 0
• To Susannah bathing; the two Elders in the back-ground, by Castiglione	2 2 0
• To the Devil and St. Dunstan, high finished by Teniers — — —	2 2 0
• To the Queen of Sheba falling down before Solomon, by Morillo — —	2 12 6
• To a Judith in the tent of Holofernes, by Le Brun — — — —	1 16 0
• To a Sicera in the tent of Jael, its companion, by the same — — — —	1 16 0
• Paid for admission into the House of Peers, to take a sketch of a great character, for a picture of Moses breaking the Tables of the Law, in the darkest manner of Rembrandt, not yet finished.'	0 2 6

In the account of Hogarth are also introduced the two plates of the Analysis of Beauty, the ill-fated Sophonisba, and Time smoking a picture. The author's remarks on the Sophonisba we shall transcribe. He quotes the objections of Mr. Walpole (now lord Orford) and thus replies :

‘ The author of the *Mysterious Mother*, sought for sublimity, where the artist strictly copied nature, of whom all his figures are the archetypes, but which the painter, who fears into *fancy's* *fairies* *regions*,

regions, must in a degree desert. Considered with this reference, though the picture has faults, Mr. Walpole's satire is surely too severe. It is built upon a comparison with works painted in a language of which Hogarth knew not the idiom,— trying him before a tribunal, whose authority he did not acknowledge, and, from the picture having been in many respects altered after the critic saw it, some of the remarks become unfair. To the frequency of these alterations we may attribute many of the errors: the man who has not confidence in his own knowledge of the leading principles on which his work ought to be built will not render it perfect by following the advice of his friends. Although Messrs. Wilkes and Churchill dragged his heroine to the altar of politics, and mangled her with a barbarism that can hardly be paralleled, except in the history of her husband,— the artist retained his partiality; which seems to have increased in exact proportion to their abuse. The picture being thus contemplated through the medium of party prejudice, we cannot wonder that all its improprieties were exaggerated. The *painted harlot* of Babylon had not more approbrious epithets from the *first race* of reformers, than the *painted Sigismunda* of Hogarth from the *last race* of patriots. When a favourite child is chastised by his preceptor, a partial mother redoubles her caresses. Hogarth, estimating this picture by the labour he had bestowed upon it, was certain that the public were prejudiced, and requested, if his wife survived him, she would not sell it for less than five hundred pounds. Mrs. Hogarth acted in conformity to his wishes, but since her death the painting has been purchased by Messrs. Boydell, and is now in the Shakespeare Gallery. The colouring, though not brilliant, is harmonious and natural: the attitude, drawing, &c. will be more universally known from a print now engraving by Mr. Ridley. I am much inclined to think, that if some of those who have been most severe in their censures, had consulted their own feelings, instead of connoisseurs, poor Sigismunda would have been in higher estimation. It has been said that the first sketch was made from Mrs. Hogarth, at the time she was weeping over the *corse* of her mother.'

In p. cxiv. and cxv. we learn that, on the death of Mrs. Hogarth, the plates of our great painter's works passed, by her will, to Mrs. Lewis; who, on condition of receiving an annuity for life, transferred to Messrs. Boydell her right in all the plates; and since in their possession they have not been touched upon by a burin. Every plate has been carefully cleaned: and the rolling-presles now in use being on an improved principle, the paper superior, and the art of printing better understood, impressions are more clearly and accurately taken off than they have been at any preceding period.

Proceeding to the work, we must again censure the poor execution

ecution of Dent's plates: even the drawing is often so defective that, in plate II. of the Harlot's Progress, the head of the Jew is too large by one half. The inaccuracies of some of Mr. Ireland's numerous *anecdotes*, and of his style, we shall not stay to point out, further than to observe on the latter, that *virtuosi* for *virtuoso*, *who for whom*, Greek *version* of the New Testament, &c. are some of the smallest errors. What shall we say to the 'monastery of St. Benedict in France,' and the 'monastery of St. Francis,' p. 143? Is Mr. Ireland to learn that the monasteries of these orders may be reckoned by hundreds?

As a complete specimen of Mr. Ireland's abilities in his present department, we shall transcribe his explanation of the third plate of Marriage a la Mode, a print which may have puzzled many of our readers.

‘ This has been said to be the most obscure delineation that Hogarth ever published, and no two persons agreeing in their explanation, seems to confirm the remark. I think it must be considered as an episode, no farther connected with the main subject, than as it exhibits the consequences of an alliance entered into from sordid and unworthy motives. In the two preceding prints, the hero and heroine of this tragedy shew a fashionable indifference to each other. On the part of the peer, we see no indication of any wish to conciliate the affection of his lady. Careless of her conduct, and negligent of her fame, he leaves her to head the musical dissipations of his house, and lays the scene of his own licentious amusements abroad. The female heart is naturally susceptible, and much influenced by first impressions. Formed for love, and gratefully attached by delicate attentions, but chilled with neglect, and frozen by coldness; by contempt it is estranged, and by habitual and long continued inconstancy, lost.

‘ To shew that our unfortunate victim to parental ambition has been driven over this fiery ordeal, and suffered this mortifying climax of provocations, the artist has made a digression, and exhibited her profligate husband attending a quack doctor. In the last plate he appears to have dissipated his fortune; in this he has destroyed his health. From the hour of his marriage, he has neglected the woman to whom he plighted his truth. Can we then much wonder at her retaliating. By the viscount she was despised; by the advocate she was adored. This insidious insinuating villain, we may naturally suppose acquainted with every part of the nobleman's conduct, and artful enough to make a proper advantage of his knowledge. From this agent of sin she probably learned how her lord was connected, and from his subtle suggestions, aided by resentment, is tempted to think these accumulated insults have dissolved her marriage vow, and given her a right to retaliate. Impelled by such motives, irritated by such provocations,

and attended by such an advocate, can we wonder that this fair unfortunate forsook the path of virtue, and plunged into the abyss of vice? To her husband, much of her error is to be attributed. She saw he despised her, and she hated him: she saw he had bestowed his affections on another, and she followed the example. To shew the consequence of his licentious wanderings, the author in this exhibits his hero in the house of one of those needy impostors, who prey upon the credulity of the public, and vend poisons, under the name of drugs. This wretched quack, being family surgeon to the old procress, who stands at his right hand, formerly attended the young girl, and received his fee, as having restored his patient to perfect health. That he was paid for what he did not perform, appears by the countenance of the enraged noblemen, who lifts up his cane in a threatening style, accompanying the action with a promise to bastinado both surgeon and procress for having deceived him by a false bill of health. These threats our natural son of *Aesculapius* treats with that careless *non chalance*, which shews that his ears are accustomed to such sounds. Not so the sage high priestess of the temple of Venus; tenacious of her good name, and trembling alive to any asperion which may tend to injure her professional reputation, she unclasps her knife, determined to stab him, and wash out this foul stain upon her honour with the blood of her accuser.

Churchill being once asked what he thought was the meaning of this print, said, that to him it had always appeared so ambiguous, that he once asked Hogarth to explain it; and the artist, like many other commentators, left his subject as obscure as he found it. "From this circumstance," added the poet, "I am convinced he formed his taste upon the ideas of Hoadley, Garrick, Townley, or some other friend, and never perfectly comprehended what it meant." Such was the opinion of this severe satirist; but let it be remembered, that this opinion was given after the publication of John Wilkes's portrait, of the Bruiser, and of the Times: a circumstance which should lead us to receive it with caution, and a degree of distrust; for the heat of party warps the understanding, and political prejudice discolours every object which it contemplates.

The nick-nackitory collection which forms this motley museum is so exactly described by Dr. Garth, that one would almost think Hogarth made the dispensary his model in designing the print.

"Here mummies lie, most reverendly stale,
And there, the tortoise hung her coat of mail:
Not far from some huge sharks devouring head,
The flying fish their finny pinions spread;

Aloft,

Aloft, in rows, large poppy-heads were strung,
And near, a scaly alligator hung;
In this place, drugs in musty heaps decay'd,
In that, dry'd bladders and drawn teeth were laid."

" An horn of a sea unicorn is so placed as to give the idea of a barber's pole; this, with the pewter bason, and broken comb, clearly hint at the former profession of our mock doctor. The high-crowned hat and ancient spur, which might once have been the property of Butler's redoubted hero, the valiant Hudibras, with a model of the gallows, and sundry non-descript rarities, shews us that this great man, if not already a member of the Antiquarian Society, is qualifying himself to be a candidate. The dried body in the glass case, placed between a skeleton and the sage's wig-block, form a trio that might serve as the symbol of a consultation of physicians. A figure above the mummies seems at first sight to be decorated with a flowing periwig, but on a close inspection, will be found intended for one of sir John Mandeville's *Anthropophagi*, a sort of men,

" Whose heads do grow beneath their shoulders."

Even the skulls have character; and the principal mummy has so majestic an aspect, that one is almost tempted to believe it the mighty Cheops, king of Egypt, whose body was certainly to be known, being the only one imtoimed in the large pyramid.

" By two machines, constructed upon most complicated principles, though intended for performing the most simple operations, we discover that our quack studies mechanics. On one of them it's a folio treatise, descriptive of their uses; by which it appears that the largest is for re-setting the collar-bone, the smallest, for drawing a cork; each of them invented by monsieur de la Pilux, and inspected, and approved by the Royal Academy of Paris."

In the note, p. 229, we find a singular specimen of Mr. Ireland's accuracy: Andrew Millar publishing a work of Hearne! Doctor Hill writing the motto! In plain truth, the epigram given appeared in a note to the Dunciad, before Millar or Hill were at all known.

(To be continued.)

A Sketch of the Life and Projects of John Law of Lauriston, Comptroller General of the Finances in France. 4to. 4s. sewed. Kearsley. 1791.

IN the introduction to this pleasing little work, the author informs us that he began some years ago to make collections, concerning the ancient and modern state of his native

parish of Cramond, near Edinburgh, especially biographical and genealogical anecdotes of the most considerable families.

‘ From these collections he lately drew up a topographical account of that parish, which had the good fortune to meet with the approbation of, perhaps, too partial judges, particularly of that intelligent senator who is now assiduously employed in elucidating the real political situation of the kingdom; and they were pleased to urge the publication of that work. As, however, the editor is sensible that it is still, in several respects, defective, he has thought it more adviseable at present, to print a few copies of a part thereof, the following sketch of the life and projects of the most extraordinary character to which, as an heritor, the parish lays claim; in hopes that when his intentions are thus announced, those who have it in their power will have the goodness to furnish him with materials to render the work as complete as possible.’

This introduction is dated at King’s Cramond, and signed
I. P. W.

Our author begins his Sketch by informing us that the Laws of Lauriston derive their descent from those of Lathrisk in Fife. The first of the house of Lauriston was William Law, who settled at Edinburgh, and followed the profession of a goldsmith, then almost synonymous with that of banker. With the profits of his business he purchased the lands of Lauriston, four miles to the north-west of the Scottish capital; and died in 1683.

John Law, the eldest of five sons, was born at Edinburgh, in April 1671. In his youth he was so remarkable for elegance of person and of dress, that he was commonly called Beau Law: visiting London in 1694, he became a favourite of the ladies; and was distinguished by a duel, in which he slew another beau of the name of Wilson. Law was apprehended, but escaped; and in the year 1700 we find him at Edinburgh, where in the following year he gave the first specimen of his financial talents, in his ‘ Proposals for a Council of Trade.’ In 1705 he published a work called, ‘ Money and Trade considered.’ Our author’s analysis of the latter work we shall extract.

‘ After preliminary observations, tending to shew the insufficiency of gold and silver to serve as money, from their increasing in quantity while the demand lessens, and the superiority of land over all other articles as a foundation for money, being capable of improvement as the demand increases, and the quantity remaining always the same; he therein proposes, that commissioners, to be appointed by, and to act under the controul of parliament, should have power to issue notes, and to give them out in any

any of these three ways; 1st, in the way of loan, at ordinary interest upon landed security, the debt not exceeding half or two thirds of the value of the land; 2dly, to give out the full price of land in notes, and to enter into the possession thereof by wad-set, redeemable within a certain period; and 3dly, to give out the full price of land upon sale irredeemably. Thus, all the notes being firmly secured on landed property, he asserts that such notes would be equal in value to gold and silver money of the same denomination, and also be preferred to these metals, as not being liable to fall in value like them.'

Finding his schemes neglected in his native country, he visited Holland, where he remained some years; and thence passed to Brussels and to Paris. At the latter place he presented a scheme for reducing the national debt, which was accepted by Desmaretz, the comptroller-general; but was rejected by Louis XIV. 'because it was proposed by a heretic.'

But upon the death of Louis XIV. Mr. Law again visited Paris, in 1715; and soon acquired the confidence of the duke of Orleans, regent of France. The author narrates the establishment of the general bank in 1718, and thus proceeds to unfold Law's grand scheme.

' After the establishment of the General Bank, Mr. Law began to develope the plan of that great and stupendous project he had long meditated, known by the name of the Mississippi System, which, for a while, turned the heads of the French, and attracted the attention of all Europe; a project that, if carried into full execution, would, in all probability have exalted France to a vast superiority of power and wealth over every other state. The scheme was no less than the vesting the whole privileges, effects and possessions of all the foreign trading companies, the great farms, the profits of the mint, the general receipt of the king's revenue, and the management and property of the bank, in one great company, who thus having in their hands all the trade, taxes, and royal revenues, might be enabled to multiply the notes of the bank to any extent they pleased, doubling or even trebling at will the circulating cash of the kingdom; and, by the greatness of their funds, possessed of a power to carry the foreign trade, and the capture of the colonies, to a height altogether impracticable by any other means. The outlines of the plan being laid before the regent, met with the approbation of that prince; measures were taken for the establishment of the proposed company, and directions issued for making the requisite grants to enable them to begin their operations.'

' Accordingly, by letters patent, dated in August 1717, a commercial company was erected, under the name of the Company of

of the West, to whom was granted the whole province of Louisiana, or the country on the river Mississippi; from which last circumstance, its subsequent proceedings came to be included under the general name of the Mississippi System. Of this company 200,000 actions (or shares) were created, rated at 500 livres each; and the subscription for them was ordered to be paid in billets d'état, at that time so much discredited, by reason of the bad payment of their interest, that 500 livres nominal value in them would not have sold upon 'change for more than 150 or 160 livres. In the subscription they were taken at the full value, so this was effectually a loan from the company to the king of 100 millions. The interest of that sum, to be paid by his majesty to the company, was fixed at the rate of 4 per cent, the first year's interest to be employed for commercial purposes, and the annual-rents of the following years to be allotted for paying regularly the dividend on the actions, which was fixed at 20 livres per annum on each, exclusive of the profits of the trade.

Of this Company of the West, Mr. Law (who had now advanced so high in the regent's favour, that the whole ministerial power was reckoned to be divided betwixt him, the Abbé du Bois, minister of foreign affairs, and M. D'Argenson, keeper of the seals), was named director general. The actions were eagerly sought after, Louisiana having been represented as a region abounding in gold and silver, of a fertile soil, capable of every sort of cultivation. The unimproved parts of that country were sold for 30,000 livres the square league, at which rate many purchased to the extent of 600,000 livres; and vigorous preparations were made for fitting out vessels to transport thither labourers and workmen of every kind. The demand for billets d'état, for the purchase of actions, occasioned their immediately rising to their full nominal value.'

Our limits will not permit us to enter more at length into the curious and particular details given by the author, on this singular and interesting subject. Suffice it to observe, that the farm of tobacco, the East Indian trade, the mint, and the great farms, were soon after concentrated in this company; which thus became the managers of the whole foreign trade and possessions of France, and the collectors of all the royal revenues. The following anecdotes may amuse the reader after these dry numerical narrations.

The unexampled rise of the price of actions afforded an opportunity to many obscure and low individuals to acquire at once princely fortunes. A widow at Namur, called Madame de Chaumont, who followed the trade of supplying the army with tents and other necessaries, gained no less than 127 millions of livres;

one M. de Vernie made 28 millions ; a M. de Farges 20 millions ; and Messrs. Le Blanc and de la Faye 17 millions each, in the Mississippi. Such rapid revolutions were productive of many laughable occurrences.—A footman had gained so much that he got himself a carriage, and the first day it came to the door, he, instead of stepping into the vehicle, mounted up to his old place behind. Mr. Law's coachman had also made so great a fortune, that he asked a dismission from his service, which was readily granted, on condition of procuring another as good as himself. The man thereupon brought two coachmen, told his master they were both excellent drivers, and desired him to make choice of one, at the same time saying, he would take the other for his own carriage.—One night at the opera, a Mademoiselle de Begond observing a lady enter, magnificently dressed, and covered with diamonds, jogged her mother and said, I am much mistaken if this fine lady is not Mary our cook. The report spread through the theatre until it came to the ears of the lady, who, going up to Madame de Begond, said, I am indeed Mary your cook, I have gained a great sum in the Rue Quinempoix, I love fine clothes and fine jewels, and am accordingly apparel'd, I have paid for every thing, am in debt to nobody, and pray who here can say more? At another time, some persons of quality beholding a gorgeous figure alighting from a most splendid equipage, and enquiring what great lady that was, one of her lacqueys fell a laughing and said, she is one who has fallen from the garret story into a chariot.'

The situation of France was so much improved, in 1719, as to appear incredible to those who had witnessed the depression of the finances of that kingdom in 1715. In 1720 Law was declared comptroller-general, and was universally adored in France. Such apprehensions were raised in the other European kingdoms, when they beheld the prosperity of France, that every art was exerted to undermine Law's credit with the regent: and in these arts cardinal du Bois, one of the most profligate of men, and the other ministers, eagerly joined. It was artfully stated to the regent that it was become absolutely necessary to form an equal proportion between the paper currency and the coin, the former now doubling the latter. On the 2nd of May 1720, the fatal *arrêt*, wrested by insidious art from the careless ignorance of the regent, was issued, by which a diminished value was imposed by the wanton hand of government upon the shares of the company, and upon the bank-notes. The step was decisive. The fabric fell at once with hideous ruin.

Law was thus hurled by the ignorance, obstinacy, and injustice of others, from the summit of power, wealth, and popularity,

pularity, to a comparatively indigent and abject state; exhibiting, says our author, a sad example of the insecurity of all property in an absolute monarchy.

‘ To this circumstance is perhaps in a great measure owing, that most of the French writers who have had occasion to treat of the history of these times, have used the liberty generally taken with the unsuccessful, of grossly calumniating the reputation of this great man, stigmatizing him as an unprincipled knave, and attributing the downfall of the system to his machinations. As to the last accusation, they either must have had positive evidence, evidence of which in all my researches I have been unable to find the smallest trace, of his advising the publication of the fatal arrêt, by which all was ruined, or they must have wilfully chosen to overlook his opposition to that infamous decree, which I hope has been sufficiently established in the preceding narrative. As to the charge of knavery, a very strong proof of the uprightness of his intentions arises from the circumstance of vesting his whole acquisitions in landed property in France, and not remitting any part thereof to foreign countries, which could have been done, with the utmost facility. If to this we add the active part he took to prevent the alteration in the tenor of the bank notes, and consider that the whole operation of the system were conducted publicly, the fabrication of notes, the creation of actions, and every grant and alienation made to the India Company being done by public acts of the king and council, it appears to be adding cruelty to injustice to asperse, in the manner these gentlemen have done, the character of Mr. Law. The injustice of this conduct is aggravated by its ingratitude, since if he had not been over ruled by the regent and his counsellors, and if the operations of the system had been conducted agreeably to his advice, France, from being reduced to beggary by the late king’s wars, was in a fair way of becoming the richest, most powerful, and most flourishing state in Europe; in which case the name of Law might have ranked next to that of Bourbon. Whatever love he might once have felt for his native country, he had transferred all his affections to France; of which, when he was prime minister, his constant discourse was, that he would raise the nation so high that every kingdom in the world would send ambassadors to Paris, while his most Christian majesty would only dispatch couriers to the other courts in return.’

The other adventures of Law are briefly detailed. From France he fled to Brussels, whence he went to Rome; and then migrated north to Copenhagen: from thence he proceeded to London, and in October 1721 was presented to George I. He afterwards went to Venice, where he died in March 1729, aged fifty-eight.

In person he was tall and well proportioned; his mien bespoke importance, his face was oval, his forehead high, fine eyes, a mild aspect, aquiline nose.

‘ His external appearance was uncommonly engaging, few equalling him in personal graces, and his mental powers were every way answerable. These qualifications united to distinguished politeness, and the sweetest and most insinuating manners, could not fail to attract the regard of those who knew him. The duchess of Orleans relates, that considering he was a foreigner, he did not speak the French language ill; and she highly commends his polite, yet spirited behaviour, when he first came into power.’

Mr. Law’s French tracts on finance were collected into an octavo volume, published at Paris in 1791.

The Meditations of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. A new Translation from the Greek Original; with a Life, Notes, &c. By R. Graves, M. A. 8vo. 6s. boards. Robinsons. 1792.

Philosophy has so seldom been cultivated on a throne, that the few instances which occur of that phenomenon have met with general admiration; and among these, none is more deservedly celebrated than the work now before us. The Meditations of the Roman emperor are not only interesting on account of the author’s high rank, but their own intrinsic merit. They present us with a series of virtuous precepts and resolutions for the conduct of life, that often approaches, in purity of doctrine, to the standard of moral perfection. But the philosophy of Antoninus, though it restrained the passions, and strongly inculcated the exercise of the social duties, was still deficient in a point of the utmost importance: that life which it studied to render useful and happy, it inconsistently admitted, in some cases, the horrible expedient of throwing away. By the light of nature, the ancient sages made, doubtless, great advancement in moral speculation; but nothing less than revealed religion could totally eradicate the principles of human ignorance and error.

Marcus Aurelius was born about the year 121 of the Christian æra; soon after the emperor Hadrian’s accession to the throne. He was of an illustrious family, both by the father’s and mother’s side; being the son of Annus Verus and Domitia Calvilla Lucilla; both whose fathers were of consular dignity. He was first called Annus Verus; but on being adopted into the Aurelian family by Antoninus Pius, he took the name of

of Aurelius, to which, on coming to the empire, he added that of Antoninus. This event happened in the year 161; and we are told it was with difficulty he was prevailed on to take the reins of government. In conformity to the intention of Hadrian, he immediately assumed Lucius Verus, as his partner in the empire: to whom also he contracted his daughter Lucilla. M. Aurelius had married the younger Faustina, his first cousin, being the daughter of Antoninus Pius, by the elder Faustina, sister to M. Aurelius's own father. This excellent emperor died, after a short illness, in his fifty-ninth year, at Vindobonum, now Vienna, in his last expedition against the northern nations.

We have extracted these few memoirs from the life of M. Aurelius, prefixed to the *Meditations* by the translator; who has likewise given, in the preface, a short account of the Stoic philosophy; the system approved by Antoninus.

The *Meditations* are divided into twelve books; but these differ not from each other with regard to the nature of the subjects. Some of them appear to have been written during military expeditions. That they never had received the emperor's corrections, seems evident from the repetitions with which they abound: and it may be inferred with equal probability, that they were not intended for publication. It is fortunate, however, that the design of the imperial author has been, in this respect, frustrated; for M. Casaubon has, in our opinion, not over-rated the merit of the work, when he pronounces it to be one of the most excellent of antiquity.

The emperor begins, as Mr. Graves observes, with great modesty and simplicity, by gratefully recollecting those on whose model and instructions he had formed his moral character. The following is part of the exordium.

‘ 1. From the example of my grandfather Verus, I acquired a virtuous disposition of mind, and an habitual command over my temper.

‘ 2. From the character which I have heard and from what I myself remember of my own father, I have learned to behave with modesty, yet with a manly firmness, on all occasions.

‘ 3d. My mother I have imitated in her piety and in her generous temper, and have been taught not only to abstain from doing any wicked action, but from indulging a thought of that kind.

‘ By her also I was habituated to a simple and abstemious way of life; very far from the luxury of a sumptuous table.

‘ 4. To my great-grandfather I am obliged, both for permitting me to attend the publick recitals and declamations in the

Rhetorick schools*, and also for procuring me the best masters at home; and for making me sensible, that one ought not to spare any expence on these occasions.

‘ 5. From my governor (who had the care of the earlier part of my education) I learned not to engage in the disputes of the Circus or of the Amphitheatre; the chariot races, or the combats of the gladiators †.

‘ He also taught me to endure hardships and fatigues; and to reduce the conveniences of life into a narrow compass; and to wait on myself on most occasions: not impertinently to interfere in other people’s affair, nor hastily to listen to calumnies and slander.

‘ 6. Diogenetus cautioned me against too eager a pursuit of trifles; particularly, not to busy myself in feeding quails ‡, (for the pit or for divination.)

‘ As also not to give credit to vulgar tales of prodigies and incantations, and evil spirits cast out || by magicians or pretenders to sorcery, and such kind of impostures.

‘ He taught me to bear patiently the free expostulations of my friends; to apply myself with assiduity to the study of philosophy; and introduced me, first, to hear Bacchius, and after that, Tandrides and Marcianus. And, while I was yet a boy, he put me upon writing dialogues as an exercise; and also taught me to relish the hard couch covered with skins; and other severities of the stoical discipline.

‘ 7. From Rusticus § I received the first intimation, that the general disposition of my mind needed some correction and cure. He prevented me from entering with warmth into the disputes, or indulging in the vanity of the Sophists; writing upon their speculative points, or perpetually haranguing on moral subjects; or making any ostentatious display of my philosophical austerities, or courting applause by my activity and patience under toil and fatigue.’

We shall lay before our readers only one other specimen of the work.

‘ 16. There are various ways by which the mind of man debases itself; particularly, when, by repining at those events which happen in the course of nature, he becomes a mere abscess or an

‘ * Those who talk of his “not running the risk of a publick school” contradict the truth of history. “Frequentavit et declamatorum scholas publicas.” CAPITOLIN.

‘ † The parties (which the classical reader knows ran high at this time) were distinguished by their *colours* in the races; and by their *instruments* amongst the gladiators.’

‘ ‡ They foretold the success of their own projects by the fighting of these quails.’

‘ || Some commentators have *fancied*, that he here alludes to the Christian miracles; but it is more probable, from the context, that he meant no more than those vulgar superstitions which have prevailed in all ages.’

‘ § A stoic philosopher, a statesman, and a soldier; the particular favourite and confidant of M. Aurelius.’

useless excrescence in that universal system of which he is a part; and in which every individual is comprehended.

‘ Again ; when we take an aversion to any one, and thwart him on every occasion, with an intention to do him some injury ; which is generally the case with people that indulge their resentment.

‘ Thirdly ; A man evidently bebasest himself, when he becomes a slave to pleasure, or is subdued by pain.

‘ Fourthly ; when he acts with dissimulation or fraud, or does or says any thing contrary to truth.

‘ Lastly ; when a man acts without thought or design, and exerts himself at random, without any regard to the consequence ; whereas every the most minute action ought to be directed to some end or useful purpose. Now the chief end of every rational being, is to be governed by the laws of the universe, the oldest and most venerable of all communities.

‘ 17. The whole period of human life is a mere point ; our being frail and transient, our perception obscure, the whole frame of our body tending to putrefaction. The soul itself is the sport of passions. The freaks of fortune not subject to calculation or conjecture, fame is undistinguishing and capricious : in a word, every thing relating to our body is fleeting, and glides away like a stream, and the reveries of the soul are a vapour and a dream. Indeed, life itself is a continual warfare, and a pilgrimage in a strange country ; and posthumous fame is near akin to oblivion.

‘ What then can conduct us safely on this journey of life ? Nothing but true wisdom or philosophy. Now this consists in cultivating and preserving from injury and disgrace that good genius within us, our soul, undisturbed and superior to pleasure and pain, not acting at random or doing any thing in vain, or with falsehood and dissimulation ; to do or leave undone whatever we please, without being influenced by the will or the opinion of other men.

‘ Moreover, to acquiesce in whatever comes to pass, either by accident or the decrees of fate, as proceeding from the same cause whence we ourselves are derived.

‘ On the whole, philosophy will teach us to wait for death with calmness and equanimity, as being no more than the dissolution of those elements of which every animal is composed. Now if no damage accrues to those several elements, in their continual changes or migrations from one body to another, why should any one be apprehensive of any injury from the change of the whole ? It is agreeable to the course of nature ; but what is such cannot be evil.’

This is incomparably the best translation we have seen of Antoninus’s work ; and Mr. Graves has added greatly to its value by his judicious notes, in which he either illustrates, or gives his opinion of the principles contained in the emperor’s meditations.

Observations and Remarks in a Journey through Sicily and Calabria, in the Year 1791: with a Postscript, containing some Account of the Ceremonies of the last Holy Week at Rome, and of a short Excursion to Tivoli. By the Rev. Brian Hill, A. M. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards Stockdale. 1792.

HOWEVER trodden the path, however hackneyed the subject, it is with pleasure that we follow an ingenious and observing author. A more vivid sun, a more active constitution, a more cheerful temper, will gild objects with brighter hues; different pursuits will represent them in a more attractive view; and varied talents will hold them up in another light. Mr. Hill has passed over the spots that we have often frequented with other travellers, but we have found his company entertaining; and we shall endeavour, while we distribute critical justice, to communicate some of the entertainment to our readers.

The party which Mr. Hill accompanied left Naples to sail for Palermo; and passing Caprea, the scene of Tiberius' infamous debaucheries, and the cabinet, from which the sanguinary mandates of that tyrant issued, they reached Palermo, with little power of adding to our former knowledge. At Palermo we meet with a curious account of the method of preserving dead bodies, which we do not recollect in any other author. The catacombs in which they are preserved, consist of four wide passages, about forty feet in length, and along the sides are niches, in which the bodies, prepared for their appearance, *by having been broiled six or seven months over a slow fire*, till all the fat and moisture are consumed, stand. The head, hands, arms, and feet, are bare, the skin is entire, and resembles pale coloured leather. Some of the more illustrious dead are shut up in trunks.

The manners of the inhabitants are not very different, in our author's representation, from the pictures of other travellers. The frequency of assassinations is very properly attributed to the priests who earnestly inculcate the greater danger of offending against human traditions than of breaking the positive and revealed laws of God. We shall extract some account of the method of travelling in Sicily, the appearance of the country, &c. The inns are, in many places, much worse than they are described in this passage, as we may have occasion to remark.

‘ The equipage provided for my brother and myself, is called a litiga, which is a sort of sedan coach, or *vis-a-vis*, supported by two poles, and carried by mules. This litiga, or double sedan, has no glass in the windows, but thick curtains in case of rain, neither has it any doors, but you are lifted in and out through

C. R. N. AR. (IV). April, 1792.

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the windows, by the men holding a little board for you to put your foot on. The sides are painted with superstitious devices, to secure you from dangers: among these, the virgin and child, and the souls in purgatory, are seldom omitted. The like is on all their boats, particularly on what are called, the *sproronara*.

‘ My nephew and our servants are furnished with good horses; three or four other men accompany us to take care of the beasts, and we have, besides, a soldier for our guard, with a gun and cutlass; so that we conceive ourselves able to make a pretty strong resistance in case of an attack. For the first seven miles, we travelled upon an excellent carriage road, over the plain, which is ornamented with country houses and gardens, corn fields, now beautifully green, groves of exceeding fine olives, and lately orange and lemon trees, loaded with fine fruit, and some other garden trees, most of which are in blossom, particularly almonds, plumbs, and peaches. We next passed over a very rugged road, under rocks by the sea-side, and by hedges of large aloes, many of which had flowered last year. The stems of several more were cut down, and used for gate-posts and other purposes. This plant, as also the Indian fig, are both extremely hardy, and will flourish in the tops of walls, on the sides of rocks and mountains, and even in the most barren sand. The manner of making hedges, is by sticking a single leaf of the Indian fig into the ground, which soon takes root, and grows to a great size; when old, it has a bark formed round it, consisting of its first leaves, grown hard and become brown. This is perhaps the only tree or shrub known that is raised by the leaves, which grow one out of another for some years before it has any stem or scarcely any root. Our whole day’s journey has been twenty-two miles, and we are now at a small town consisting of six or seven wide parallel streets, the houses of which are all poor, and only one story high. Such is our inn, which, to our astonishment, is perfectly clean, and contains three beds, upon which we may venture to sleep, without apprehensions. Besides a most admirable arrangement of crockery ware, the walls are ornamented with images, crucifixes, and pictures of saints; and, as a farther proof of the piety of the two good old women that keep the house, there is a figure of a little waxen virgin just delivered, with the infant Jesus lying by her, carefully preserved in a glass case; though this figure of the virgin lies prostrate kicking up the legs in no very decent manner, yet we should certainly have been thought highly profane, had we made any animadversions on it. The windows are not glazed, and we have no other defence against the cold, which is at present pretty severe, but wooden shutters, which, for the advantage of the light, we keep open. There is no food of any kind in the house, excepting some that we brought with us from

Palermo,

Palermo, and which we are now going to dress ourselves, over a charcoal brazier in the middle of the room. Frosty morning. Bright cool day.'

As this is the first quotation, we may observe, that the addition of the weather and the state of the air, contrasted with the immediately preceding sentence, has sometimes a ludicrous effect. If we read in a journal, our dinner was excellent, and the people attentive—a bright delightful day; or the fowls were lean, and the mutton overdrift—a cold, bleak, hazy afternoon; we may suspect, in each instance, that the parts of the sentence have a more intimate connection than immediately following each other.—Thus, in p. 217, we find, 'our *good inn*.' 'Alas, alas! our beds are left behind—*cool* and *cloudy*,' with some similar instances where the contrast or the coincidence is a little whimsical. The charitable employment of the prince of Biscaris' servant on the head of his comrade, might have excited much higher disgust, if it had not been 'serene and mild.' Mr. Hill will not, we hope, be angry at these remarks: they first occurred to us in reading his work in a post-chaise. The weather warm and highly pleasant, so that it could not be suggested by any malignity.

The portrait of his Sicilian majesty is not so favourable as some others drawn by different painters. Mr. Hill gives full credit to the chearfulness and affability of the king, but adds some circumstances, which display much weakness of mind, vanity, and want of taste. These may be true, for Nature seems not to have scattered her choicest favours on royal heads, or education has nipped the flowers in the bud.—The bite of the tarantula, in Mr. Hill's opinion, in which he agrees with the most intelligent modern travellers, is not dangerous; or, if so, the danger is removed by the profuse sweats which the usually attending exercise excites. The snow-white sheep of Tarentum are no longer observed: they are all black, owing as is supposed to a certain herb in the neighbourhood, which poisons the white sheep without injuring the black ones. Our author does not think this opinion a very probable one; but, if we consider that the black beasts or birds, among those animals that admit of this colour, are of the wilder and harder kind, we may be allowed to consider the reason as more probable.

These observations chiefly occur in a little excursion westward along the northern coast of Sicily to Favoretta and Castell a Mare. During the second stay at Palermo, some circumstances which were not noticed before are mentioned. The population of Palermo is estimated at 320,000; and though it is agreed by every traveller that the people are very numerous in proportion to the size of the city, this great number almost exceeds belief. The banditti are less numerous than formerly, though still formidable.

dable. From among those who have been taken and received the king's pardon, the travelling guards are selected; and they are always faithful to those they engage to protect, though they rob and sometimes murder others.

‘ Last year, many people in this town and neighbourhood, died in a sudden and extraordinary manner; they were generally seized with vomiting, and expired in a few hours. The cause of their death was discovered in the following manner. A young woman went to an officer of justice, to make some complaints concerning her husband; he desired her to be reconciled, and refused to proceed against him, upon which, she turned away in a rage, muttering, that she knew how to be revenged. The magistrate paid attention to what she said, and gave orders for her being arrested; when, upon strict enquiry concerning the meaning of her words, she confessed, that it was her intention to poison her husband, by purchasing a bottle of vinegar from an old woman, who prepared it for that purpose. In order to ascertain the truth of this story, another woman was sent to the old jade, to demand some of the same vinegar, which was sold for about ten pence a bottle. “ What do you want with it?” said the vender, “ why,” (replied the other) “ I have a very bad husband, and I want to get rid of him.” Hereupon, the old woman, seventy-two years of age, produced the fatal dose, upon which she was immediately seized, and conducted to prison, where she confessed that she had sold forty-five or forty-six bottles. Many people were taken up, but as upon further enquiry it was discovered that several of the nobility had been purchasers, the affair was dropt, and the old woman alone suffered death. Fair and cool.’

The bay of Palermo is formed by two high rocks, and the plain on which it stands extends eight or nine miles to the east and west. This plain has been evidently gained from the sea, since the rocks consist almost wholly of shells, agglutinated by the slime of their former inhabitants. Our author describes the singular capricious ornaments of one of the neighbouring palaces, and the convent of the noble monks of St. Martino, more particularly than former travellers. They live in princely splendor, but are unfortunately divided by party, ‘ by envy, hatred, malice, and all uncharitableness.’ There are but four brothers, and they are equally divided into two parties.

From Palermo our travellers go eastward to Messina, and southward as far as Syracuse. The narrative of travels in Sicily presents little variety. Nature offers spontaneously her choicest productions; and, if one spot appears to have been peculiarly favoured by providence, it is the present scene of Mr. Hill's observations. The most abject poverty and misery,

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the consequence of despotism, contrasts the scene, and the most disgusting filth, joined with every possible inconveniency, is the lot of the wearied traveller who wishes for repose. The inhabitants experience also dangers connected, in the opinion of some philosophers, with their blessings, viz. frequent earthquakes. The late dreadful one, by which Messina was destroyed, is still within our memories. We remember observing the thermometer fall remarkably, and hollow winds, with a gloomy sky of a very dreadful appearance, were observable even in this island, on the fatal and two succeeding days. Let us add our author's particular account: it is the fullest, and we believe the most accurate, that has appeared in our language.

‘ On the fifth day of the present February, (1783) an unpropitious day, and ever to be had in remembrance by the beautiful Messina, about forty-eight minutes past eleven in the morning, the earth began to shake, at first slightly, then with such force, such bellowing, and with such various and irregular shocks that the motion was similar to the rolling of the sea*. The walls gave way on every side, knocked together, and crumbled to pieces; the roofs were cast into the air, the floors shattered, the vaults broken, and the strongest arches divided. By the force of three or four shocks, which succeeded each other without a moment's intermission, many houses were reduced to ruin, many palaces thrown down, and churches and steeples levelled with the ground. At the same time a long fissure was made in the earth upon the quay, and in an adjoining hill, while another part of the coast was covered by waves. At that instant a vast cloud like ashes rose furiously from the horizon in the north-west, reached the zenith, and descended in the opposite quarter. It grew dark at the moment of the concussion, extended its dimensions, and almost obscured the whole hemisphere †. At the same time also appeared upon the tops the houses and palaces that were falling to pieces, a sudden and transient flame, like those lightnings that glance from the summer clouds, leaving behind it a sulphureous smell ‡.

‘ The wretched inhabitants now left their houses in the greatest terror and confusion, calling upon God with piteous cries for succour, and running to and fro about the streets, not knowing whither they should flee. In the mean while the buildings on each side were falling upon them, and the earth almost continually trembling under their feet, so that in the short space of three minutes they were almost all collected together in the squares and

* From this motion many persons were seized with giddiness and vomiting, and the very birds were so affected, that they suffered themselves to be taken by the hand.

† The same phenomenon was observed in three succeeding shocks, that completed the destruction of the city.

‡ The same was seen in several parts of Calabria, and has likewise been remarked in former earthquakes.’

open places of the city, under the dreadful apprehensions of instant death. Every eye was bathed with tears, and every heart palpitated with fear, while they experienced an addition to their misery by being exposed to the violence of a tempestuous wind, attended with torrents of hail and rain. It is impossible for the pencil of the most ingenious painter to delineate, or for the pen of the most able writer to describe the horror and confusion of these wretched people. Each one sought for safety in flight, and many in seeking it met with death. Others were buried alive under the falling houses *, others hung upon the beams, others upon the thresholds of the windows and balconies, from whence by means of ropes and ladders they with difficulty escaped with their lives, and others miserably perished, either under the stones and rubbish of their own dwellings, or from the buildings which fell upon them as they passed through the streets.

They who escaped unhurt, spent the rest of the day in preparing a place of shelter against the approaching night. Some little ill-built cabins, composed of furniture taken from the ruins, were raised in the space of a few hours, within which they lay together in promiscuous companies upon the bare ground.

The earth in the mean time continued to shake incessantly, with a noise similar to a furious cannonading, which seemed to proceed from within its bowels. Sometimes the shocks were weak, sometimes strong, and so continued till midnight, when with a most tremendous noise the shaking assumed a redoubled fury, and threw down all those edifices that had resisted the former shocks. Then fell part of the walls of the cathedral, the magnificent steeple, two hundred and twenty-five palms in height, part of the great hospital, the seminary of the priests, the remainder of the student's college †, the front of the palaces upon the quay, many churches, convents and monasteries, together with multitudes of private houses. At the same time the sea rose with an extraordinary roaring to a vast height, overflowed a long tract of land near a little lake called Il Pantanello, and carried back with it some poor cottages that were there erected, together with all the men, animals, and vessels it met with in its passage, leaving upon the land, which had been overthrown, a great quantity of fish of various kinds.

From twelve o'clock of the aforesaid fifth of February to the midnight following, the shocks were so frequent, that they succeeded each other without any interval longer than fifteen minutes,

* Rosa Santagelo, aged ninety-seven, was dug out of the ruins at Catania, in the year 1693. She was again buried by this earthquake at Messina, and again preserved alive.

† The greater part of the students, who had been immured by the falling of the buildings at the first shock, were now set at liberty, and escaped unhurt.

and continued much in the same manner till about three o'clock on the evening of the seventh, when the whole mine was sprung at once, and the last stroke given to the already-ruined Messina. A cloud of dust that darkened the air rose from the falling city, and in this, more than in any of the former earthquakes, was felt a variety of motions undulatory, vertical, &c. which shattered the walls to pieces, destroyed many buildings from their very foundations, and, as if pounded in a mortar, spread them over the surface of the earth *.

' Some few edifices that were founded upon rocks in the upper part of the city, are still standing, but they are for the most part so cracked and damaged, that it is dangerous to go near them.'

Several particular effects of the concussion are afterwards mentioned, and the meteorological appearances, previous to the shock, described. The length of our former extracts prevents us from enlarging on these: they in general show a state of the air very highly electrical. The other appearances were halos and thick mists; winds variable and inconstant, alternating with dead calms; the water of the wells turbid, and the sea rising to an uncommon height, its billows roaring with an unusual sound. The fatal signal, instantaneously preceding the shock, was the eruption of dense globes of smoke from Volcano and Stromboli. The brute creation were sensible of some horrible impending event: oxen placed their feet strongly against the earth, raised their heads, and bellowed most loudly: birds flew about confused, fearing to perch on the trees or light on the ground, and immense quantities of sea-geese were seen swimming on the waters of the Faro.

Whoever considers the vast powers of volcanoes may, in our author's opinion, credit the story related by Plato of the Atlantica, which Mr. Hill thinks was founded on the separation of America from Europe. But, in this solution, we do not find many parts of the Egyptian story accounted for, nor does it coincide with the circumstances of America. If we can ever enter into the discussion, we may render it more probable that a large country in the Atlantic has been actually overwhelmed by the sea.

Ætna has been often described, and Mr. Hill enters the lists with some success against the tribe of philosophers, who, from successive beds of lava covered with strata of a vegetable soil,

* The whole number of persons that lost their lives at Messina, amounted to six hundred and seventeen, besides which, many others were wounded in a terrible manner. Two children, a boy and a girl, continued seven days under the ruins, and were then found alive, and it is reported of another, that he recovered after having been confined a still longer time. Some Guinea-fowls subsisted without food seventeen days, and two mules twenty-four.'

of different thickness, endeavour to prove the age of the world to be much beyond the æra described by Moses. We have often had occasion to join in the same opposition, and need not again renew the dispute. Our author's remarks deserve much attention. He gives some account of the chevalier Gioeni's museum of the Vesuvian lavas, which we noticed in our last Appendix, but styles him improperly Joenai. He describes too some remains of ancient buildings, &c. discovered in this neighbourhood, covered, like Herculaneum and Pompeia, by the ashes of their destructive neighbours. We shall extract the account of the caverns and catacombs near Syracuse.

‘ Passing from thence over a few fields, we came to some small caverns, one of which is simply ornamented over the entrance with Doric architecture cut in the solid rock. A little farther, we found a Gothic church under ground, said to be the first Christian one in the island ; it is very small, and still used for the celebration of mass. Above is another church, or rather chapel, of modern date, adjoining to which stands an ancient Gothic wall, ornamented with an handsome Gothic window. From the lower church, we were conducted into the catacombs, which are said to extend as far as the ancient city, and are not less curious than those at Naples. After traversing a long passage, in the sides of which are niches for the dead, we came to a round hall, about twenty feet in diameter, and tapering like a cone to the top, which seems to have been formerly open. From the hall, are three or four passages, leading to other halls of the same kind, and so on through labyrinths, that no mortal has the courage to explore. The tombs in the passages are formed one behind another, and extend backwards into the rock, to the number of twenty-five in a row. The halls, it is supposed, were intended for families of distinction. In the midst of some is a large tomb for the chief, and around are cavities for the rest of the family. There are a few ornaments remaining, and one or two Greek inscriptions.’

Ætna, when viewed from Catanea, did not flame majestically : its fire is described as a dim red light, like the sun in a fog. A curious creature, ‘ of the fish kind,’ is also mentioned : ‘ it had a deep mouth, several rows of teeth, and four long tails.’ From its body was emitted a glue, by which it could attach itself to a man so strongly as to kill him.

Our travellers crossed over the narrow strait, and landed at Regio in Calabria : the mortality, from the earthquake, was much less dreadful here than in Messina ; only 120 persons suffering from the disaster : at Bagnara the number killed is said to have been 4350.—In Calabria the accommodations were no bette,

better than in Sicily, and the cold of the winter, which our travellers spent in this southern part of Europe, where they had been sent to avoid the inclemency of higher latitudes, was extreme. They suffered more severely by being in a country where chimnies are considered as superfluities, where the houses are constructed so as to avoid the effects of extreme heat, rather than to guard against or counteract the severity of cold. At Morano, our author tells us, that the fine weather brought the green lizards from their recesses. These animals, whose bodies are green burnished with gold, and whose head is a bright polished blue, are very beautiful; but Mr. Hill is mistaken when he tells us that the medicine called Venice treacle is prepared from the flesh of these animals, and others of the serpent kind, boiled to a jelly. In the ancient Venice treacle the bellies of a kind of lizard, the skink, was an ingredient; and on the spot it may now become the only one. The expression, however, if it is so, must be condemned as too general. Little else occurs which particularly merits our notice in this place. The whole concludes with the ceremonies of the holy week, as they were celebrated last year with peculiar brilliancy, owing to the presence of the king and queen of Naples, and Mesdames de France. These mummeries excite our pity, and sometimes indignation, which we trust arises from a proper sense of religion. Holy kissing makes a large part of the ceremony. The pope kisses the cardinals, and actually almost devours with the fondest kisses the foot of a Roman consul, now since he has been regularly christened, taken or mistaken for a statue of St. Peter. Many parts of the description are, however, by no means new, and the whole is too trifling to detain us. The short excursion to Tivoli is, on the contrary, very pleasing, and the description of this classic ground highly interesting. We shall conclude these Travels, which we have read with great pleasure, and which we think highly deserving of the public attention, by a description of the celebrated cascade at Tivoli.

‘ The town of Tivoli, once a place of great note, but now inconsiderable, is beautifully situated upon the side of the Apennine hills. It is famous for one of the finest cascades in Europe, different views of which have been taken by most of the landscape painters in Italy. The Tiverrone, called by Horace Anio, of which it is composed, and which is about the size of the Avon at Bath, first takes one moderate leap about twenty feet, and thence, a few yards farther, precipitates itself under the arch of a bridge with great rapidity among broken rocks, which close by degrees, and conceal it from view, till it foams again into sight from under a great natural vault, called Neptune’s cave. It there finds a

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small shelf, or ledge, from whence it falls again as high as the first time. The magnificence of the scenery is at this place increased by a collateral stream, which tumbles from an high perpendicular rock. These two currents, thus joined, shortly fall again, and once more after that, force their way through a vast stony mass, which lies across their channel. This little sequestered spot, amidst the roar of so many cascades, and so closely embraced by rocks and mountains, is surely the highest treat that a lover of romantic prospects can enjoy. There are indeed few large trees to ornament the scene, but a variety of shrubs, and some vineyards.'

Speeches of M. de Mirabeau the Elder, pronounced in the National Assembly of France. To which is prefixed, a Sketch of his Life and Character. Translated from the French Edition of M. Mejan. By James White, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Debrett. 1792.

GREAT abilities are developed by events; and, in a suitable situation, the peculiar talents and temper of every one are displayed, in proportion as the exigencies of the moment call for their exertion. Those who looked at the rough exterior, and the awkward air of Cromwell, when he at first appeared in parliament, those who attended to his confused and embarrassed elocution, could not see the clear decision of his resolves, the warm impetuosity of his enthusiasm, which hurried away the minds of his hearers and companions, and left reason coolly to follow, sometimes to condemn. Nor would these qualities, in other times, have led him to be the protector of a great kingdom: talents, perhaps equal, have been lost in the intrepid sportsman, and elocution, equally embarrassed, has only raised the smile at a vestry. We are not now to look at Mirabeau as the spy on the French ambassador at Berlin, or as raising 'doubts' respecting 'the navigation of the Scheld,' but as the impetuous leader of an oppressed people in the recovery of their liberties, enthusiastic in the pursuit, and at last, perhaps, like vaulting ambition, which overleaps itself, alighting in licentiousness. His indiscretion may have suggested doubts of his integrity, or the former part of his life may have led both his friends and his enemies to suspect whether his principles were so firmly fixed as to secure him from temptation. This is not our present business; we must look at M. de Mirabeau as an orator only, as a distinguished actor in a revolution hitherto unequalled in the annals of the world.

The translator, Mr. White, we have already followed in the conflict of words, in his version of Cicero's *Philippics*, where

where the accomplished orator leaves the calm road of persuasion, and elegant argument, for the more powerful indignant style of Demosthenes. In this almost congenial attempt, he has succeeded better, if we may be allowed to say so, when we can only judge of the fidelity of the translation from some extracts quoted by foreign journalists, and the few original sentences added in the margin. So far as these assist us, we think his version free, animated, and often uncommonly happy. The nervous energy of his style, accompanied by an apparently easy flow of words, give great force to the arguments: we are hurried away in the strain of indignant oratory, and catch, for a moment, the animation, the passion of the speaker. Mr. White observes, that these speeches, which are 'an extract from a voluminous collection, may be considered as having gained rather than lost by translation,' modestly adding as a reason, 'since they are now adopted into a language, which has for ages been the language of liberty.'

' Mirabeau is, in my mind, an orator of the first rank. He appears to me to be, in many parts of his orations, highly Ciceronian, and, in some paragraphs, even towers to a pitch of splendour and sublimity, which seems to equalize him with Demosthenes. (The period quoted in the title-page is such a one as Demosthenes might have gloried in delivering.) I think I find in him, at times, the satirical energy of Grattan, the imperious logic of Flood, the grand and irresistible enthusiasm of Chatham.

' If, as Cicero so justly observes, the whole business of an orator is comprised in these three points, to inform, to please, to agitate, docere, delectare, permovere; the last of which, he affirms, is infinitely the most important, M. de Mirabeau is an orator in the completest sense. The two former of these three qualities, insists the Roman orator, are of little avail without the third; but the third, without the former two, is very frequently inadequate to the acquisition of victory.'

' Had Mirabeau been a mere man of *argument*, or had he been only a *pretty* speaker, he never could have so powerfully influenced the French nation, as we know he did. Like Demosthenes, he spoke to the *feelings* of his fellow-citizens, as well as to their *reason*: while he informed their understandings, he animated their hearts.'

Mirabeau spoke extempore, with little preparation; he spoke to the feelings, the passions, and spoke to those who felt like himself. Who shall then wonder at his success? and if in the moment of liberty, licentiousness could have been suppressed, if the cordial draught had been temperately sipped, without intoxication; if, in the moment of prosperity, the

the band of patriots had known how to have checked their career, and stopped safely within the bounds of a sober temperate liberty, checked by an aristocracy, controuled by law, and regulated by a respected monarchy, we should have hailed the star, rising and spreading its beneficent beams, with an adoration truly Persian. At present--but we must no longer wander from the subject. The original editor apologises for some less polished expressions, which the orator, in his haste, hazarded, and the translator has softened, subjoining, however, in these instances, and where the language of Mirabeau was remarkably strong and pointed, the original in the margin. To each speech, a short account of the occasion on which it was delivered is prefixed, and these render the substance easily intelligible, besides forming a very concise abstract of the principal events. We can only extract some passages from this entertaining volume; and, if they should appear numerous, the spirit of the orations, and the circumstances which gave occasion to the exertion of the orator's abilities, must be our excuse. The first speech of Mirabeau was delivered when the returns had been verified, when a few only of the clergy had seceded to the commons, when it was necessary to act, and difficult to determine in what character the exertions were to commence. He recommended the title of representatives of the *people* of France; and his argument rests on the dignity, the majesty of the people, a theme at that time new in France, at which even the more violent demagogues started with surprise and apprehension.

" Assume not an alarming appellation. Look out for one which cannot be disputed with you, one which, more mild, and no less imposing in its plenitude, may be applicable to all times, may agree with every improvement which events will suffer you to make, and may, in the hour of need, serve as a weapon to defend the rights and principles of the nation.

" Such is, in my opinion, the following formulary: *Representatives of the people of France.*

" Who can dispute this title with you? What will it not become, when your principles shall be known, when you shall have proposed good laws, when you shall have acquired the confidence of the public?—How will the other two orders then conduct themselves?—Will they join you? They must do it; and, if they are sensible of that necessity, what more will it cost them to join you in regular form?—Will they refuse to join you?—We will give sentence against them, when the world at large shall be able to form an opinion of both parties."

The second part of the speech on the same subject displays an accuracy of distinction, and a clearness of reasoning,

which, if the speech were really extempore, is highly commendable. Mr. Fox, even in his best replies, which are often truly excellent, never excelled the French orator in these points.

When the king commanded (commanded, alas ! for the last time) the assembly to quit the hall, and the master of the ceremonies reminded the president of this injunction, Mirabeau's reply, which must have been unpremeditated, is excellent.

‘ M. de Mirabeau. (Addressing himself to M. de Breze.)

“ The commons of France have determined to debate : we have heard the intentions which have been suggested to the king ; and you who cannot be his instrument at the national assembly, you who have here neither place, nor voice, nor right to speak, are not the kind of person to remind us of his speech. Go tell your master, that we are here by the power of the people, and that nothing shall expel us but the power of the bayonet.”

The following extracts from a speech on the address for removing the soldiers, we cannot praise too highly : they display an intimate knowledge of human nature, consummate art, and just reasoning.

“ What occasion, at this moment, for the soldiery ? Never had the people more reason to be calm, to be tranquil, to be confident ; every thing announces to them the end of their calamities ; every thing promises them the regeneration of the kingdom ; their eyes, their hopes, their wishes rest on us. Ought we not to be considered as the best security to the sovereign, for the confidence, the obedience, the fidelity of his people ? If he ever could have doubted them, he can no longer do so now : our presence is the pledge of public peace, and undoubtedly there never will exist a better. Yes, let them assemble troops in order to subjugate the people to the dreadful designs of despotism ! but let them not drag the best of princes to commence the prosperity, the liberty of the nation, with the inauspicious apparatus of tyranny !

“ Indeed, I am not yet acquainted with all the pretexts, all the artifices of the enemies of the people, as I cannot divine with what plausible reason they can colour over the pretended necessity for the troops, at the moment when not only the uselessness, but the danger of them also makes an impression upon every heart. With what eyes will a people, assailed by so many miseries, see that multitude of idle soldiers coming to dispute with it the relics of its subsistence ? The contrast created by the plenty on the one side (bread, in the eyes of him who is famishing, is plenty), the contrast of plenty on the one side, and of indigence on the other, of the unconcern of the soldier, into whose lap

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manna falls while he hath never any occasion for thinking of the morrow, and the anguish of the people, that obtains nothing but at the price of irksome labour, and of painful sweat, is calculated to inspire every bosom with despair!"

" Let the advisers of these calamitous measures now inform us, whether they are sure of preserving military discipline in its full severity, of preventing all the effects of the eternal jealousy subsisting between the national and the foreign troops, of reducing the French soldiers to the state of mere automata, to have separate interests, separate thoughts, separate sentiments from their fellow-citizens. What imprudence in their system, to march the soldiers to the scene of our assemblies, to electrify them by the contact of the capital, to interest them in our political discussions! No; spite of the blind devotion of military obedience, they will not forget what we are; they will view in us their relations, their friends, their family, taking care of their dearest interests; for they form a part of that nation which hath entrusted to our care its liberty, its property, its honour. No; such men, such Frenchmen, will never totally abandon their intellectual faculties; they will never believe that duty consists in striking without inquiring who are the victims."

The address is in the same style, and is, we think, one of the most finished productions which the French revolution has yet produced. The address to the king, advising the dismissal of the ministers, is only inferior to it. In this address, we find the first origin of the form that 'the assembly has no confidence in the ministers;' the language often made use of since, to hint the necessity of a resignation. In the speech on the same subject, Mirabeau replies to what was urged by M. Mounier respecting the conduct of England in similar emergencies. This passage is interesting to ourselves. We shall only add to the translator's note, that the conduct of the French patriot is a little ungrateful, if he knew of the extravagant reiterated applauses bestowed on the revolution by the English whigs.

" But look, you say, at Great Britain! what popular commotions are not caused in that kingdom, by this very right which you lay claim to? It is this that hath ruined England—England ruined! Mighty God! What unfortunate intelligence! from what quarter did the mischief come? What earthquake, what convulsion of nature hath swallowed up that famous island, that inexhaustible treasury of illustrious examples, that classic country of the friends of liberty?—But you give me comfort—England still flourishes for the eternal instruction of the world: England, in a glorious silence, is now healing those wounds which in the height of a burning fever she inflicted on herself! England dis-

plays all the various arts of industry, explores every source of human prosperity, and even now hath just filled up a vast chasm in her constitution, with all the vigour of the most energetic youth, and the imposing maturity of a people grown old in state affairs.— You are thinking, then, merely of some parliamentary dissensions (there, as in other places, it is often no more than talk, which hath no other importance than the interest of loquacity); or rather, it seems to be the last dissolution of parliament which affrights you to this degree.

“ I will not say, that, according to what you have advanced, it is evident that you are unacquainted with the causes and the particulars of that great event, which is not a revolution, as you are pleased to call it; but I will say, that that example affords a proof irresistible, that the influence of a national assembly over an administration can never be calamitous, since that influence is null, the very moment the senate abuses it.

“ In fact, what hath been the issue, in this uncommon circumstance, where the king of England, supported by a very weak minority, did not hesitate to cope with the national assembly, formidable as it was, and dissolve it? On a sudden, the fantastic edifice of a colossal opposition tottered on its frail foundation, on that aspiring and factious coalition which seemed to threaten a universal usurpation *. And what was the cause of this so sudden change? The cause was, that the people was of the king's opinion, and not of that of the parliament. The supreme magistrate of the nation quelled the legislative aristocracy by a simple appeal to the people, to that people which hath never but one interest; because the public welfare is essentially its own. Its representatives, invested with an invisible power, and with almost a real dictatorship when they are the organs of the general inclination, are no more than powerless pygmies when they dare to substitute, in place of their sacred mission, the interested views and passions of private individuals.”

The speech on the veto is more clear, argumentative, and connected than any other: it was revised and published by the author. Mirabeau, who, by the way, was not always successful in his motions, argued for an absolute veto; and this was only preferable to a suspensive veto, when we take in the whole of his proposal, that the taxes, the pay of the army, and every financing decree, should be annual. This might have introduced confusion in other respects, and perhaps the present determination may be more simple and expedient.

The last speech, and the intended reply, is on the property of the clergy, which, on the motion of Mirabeau, was de-

* I thought the French patriots and the English opposition were better friends than this occasion seems to indicate. W.

clared to belong to the nation. But oratory and metaphysical distinctions cannot change the nature of right and wrong. Mirabeau succeeded in the assembly, but he will fail before the tribunal of posterity. From this speech, however, we may select a passage or two, illustrative of the orator's talents and abilities. The establishments founded by the kings, he urges, with some propriety, are the property of the nation, as founded on the public expence, with the treasures of the nation. The foundations of the nobility are sometimes of the same kind; and the question, as we have formerly had occasion to state it, rests on the donation of individuals. On this part of the subject, he exerts all his talents, all his ingenuity.

“ As to the estates derived from foundations made by simple individuals, it is equally easy to prove, that, in appropriating them to herself upon the inviolable condition of furnishing the necessary charges, the nation commits no outrage against the right of property, nor against the will of the founders, such as we must suppose it to be in the order prescribed by law.

“ In fact, gentlemen, what is property in general? It is the right which all have given to a single person to possess exclusively a thing, to which, in its natural state, all had an equal right: and, after this general definition, what is private property? It is an estate acquired by virtue of the laws.

“ I return to this principle, because an honourable member who spoke, some days ago, upon this question, did not state it perhaps with the same precision as those other truths, the principles and consequences of which he hath so ably unfolded. Yes, gentlemen, it is the law alone which constitutes property, since it is only the public will which can effect the renunciation of all, and give a title, as the warrant of enjoyment, to a single person.

“ If we be supposed out of the protection of law, what is the consequence?

“ Either all possess, and then, nothing being peculiar to any one person, there is no such thing as property.”

The argument we may take up in another view.

“ I might remark, that every member of the clergy is an officer of the state; that the service of the altar is a public function; and that, as religion is the concern of all, for that sole reason its ministers should be paid by the nation, like the judge who gives sentence in the name of the law, like the soldier who, in the name of the community, defends the common property.

“ I might conclude from this principle, that, if the clergy had no revenue, the state would be obliged to supply one: now,

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an estate which serves only to pay our debts, is certainly our property.

" I might conclude, moreover, that the clergy could acquire estates for no other purpose than the discharge of the state, since, in granting these estates, the founders have done what, in their place, and in their default, the nation must have done."

We need make no comments on these observations; they need no refutation. The lowest allowance is 1200 livres a year, equal to 50 pounds sterling, on the lowest computation; we wish every English clergyman had as much. House and gardens are not included. The great objection that we formerly made to the stipends was, that the higher orders had so little, that the prizes to be attained by superior knowledge, learning, and piety were not greater.

A speech of Mirabeau in the assembly of Provence is subjoined. Mr. White observes, ' it breathes, in different parts, all the spirit of Demosthenes.' We cannot, however, enlarge our extracts. We trust that we shall induce our readers to peruse the whole work: we meant no more; and can assure them they will not be disappointed.

An Historical Sketch of the French Revolution from its Commencement to the Year 1792. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Debrett. 1792.

AGES must elapse before history can dip her pen, to delineate the particular traits of a revolution, or to draw the portraits of the actors. In more recent times, passions and prejudices interpose fallacious media, and those who can see, are afraid lest the imperfectly smothered flame may again break out and destroy them. Every work of this kind from France is peculiarly liable to suspicion; and for an Englishman to decide on the motives and conduct of the actors in so vast a scene, whose connections and dispositions he cannot understand, may be deemed presumptions. Yet a cool enquirer, at a distance from the scene, may collect the documents which successively appear, and a philosophical investigator may connect actors with probable motives, events with apparent, though distant, causes, and produce a work, which if not strictly historical, may furnish the future historian with information, and be both pleasing and interesting to his own contemporaries. Our author's sketch is of this kind: to a minute attention he seems to have joined extensive information, and to a general fidelity of detail, judicious and interesting reflections. His peculiar bias is obvious and confessed, and may consequently be guarded against, where it may appear to

C. R. N. AR. (IV.) April, 1792. Hh operate:

operate: he comes near to that class of which we have professed ourselves followers, a friend to a subordination of ranks, and an advocate for regulated liberty; and politically, for two distinct houses of parliament, regulated by a limited and hereditary monarchy. The French revolution is now, however, ground often trodden, a subject trite, hackneyed, stale. It is not our intention again to go over the well-known narrative, but to follow our author in those parts, where, by comparing different publications, or the conduct of men at different times, he has been enabled to give a new view of either motives or actions.

After a short introduction, and some account of the sources from whence this narrative is drawn, our author proceeds to some observations on the origin of regal government in Europe. It was certainly, as he remarks, a military aristocracy; and, when a fortunate leader could not by his own powers raise himself above the rest, his companions bestowed on one a precarious and a limited authority. This observation, so far as it respects France, involves many important circumstances. The aspiring spirit of the aristocrats, the persecution of these military despots, seems to have induced the kings of France very early to court the tiers état, and to raise their political importance: they were admitted even in the first year of the 14th century to the states, and, probably, earlier; the mode of election was nearly that, which modern refinement considers as an improvement, viz. the interposing an intermediate body of electors between the people and their representatives; and, being thus raised by the king as a check on the nobles, or protected by him, the name of the king became so popular, that their attachment was at least an habitual enthusiastic veneration for the person of the monarch; a veneration which has rapidly declined, and is almost lost within the three last years.

Some general observations on former states-general are premised; and the narrative of events, from the accession of Louis XVI. to the meeting which afterwards became the 'national assembly,' follow. The character of M. Necker is a just one, but his failings, though not concealed, are touched with a gentle hand. To M. Calonne the author is not, perhaps, equally impartial, but his character, he observes, affords an awful lesson to princes, that a man of pleasure and of expense will never be trusted by the people as a statesman. It is a lesson, that we hope will sink deep on the minds not only of princes, but of those who wish to be trusted. Among the abuses in France are mentioned the manorial rights, and our author doubts, whether it should be just or even popular in

In England to abolish at once all prerogatives of lords of manor, the remains of a Gothic legislation. It was a subject to be touched with a gentle hand, but we have little doubt in saying, that it is a greater grievance than any which have been so ostentatiously produced. It is not the first time that we have had occasion to deliver this opinion.

The arret of parliament in 1788 offered, according to our author, the fairest foundation for a system of liberty; but it was rejected with scorn: it neither appeared in the metaphysical garb of modern philosophy, nor did it probably suit the ambitious view of some who intended to be the future leaders of a revolution. The meeting of the states occasioned much disturbance respecting the question of voting by orders, or by numbers, circumstances by no means of importance at this time, though on the result of one of these, the union of orders and the proportion of the deputies of the tiers etat, the revolution depended. These subjects are well known, but we shall add a short extract we think of consequence.

‘ The difference between England and France must, however, be summed up in a few words. In England, the younger branches of noble families are mixed with the people; and it is the ambition of the elder branches to have them sit in the house of commons. In France there was no law which prohibited the *Third Estate* from choosing a *Gentilhomme* for their representative, but an unhappy prejudice had made it a matter of reproach, either for a *Gentilhomme* to offer himself, or for a body of popular electors to choose him as one of the popular representatives. Hence arose that peculiar composition of the *Third Estate*, that great proportion of lawyers, attorneys, physicians, artists, authors, which surprises Mr. Burke, whilst the chamber of nobles was full of private gentlemen, who in England would sit in the house of commons as knights of the shire *.’

The different parties, in the states-general, have not been distinctly described in any English publication of importance. We shall transcribe our author’s account.

‘ 1st. The aristocratic party who were resolved to support, at all hazards, the separation of the states into three chambers, and the respective veto of each chamber on the others.

‘ Mess. d’Epresmesnil and Cazales led this party among the nobles, and l’Abbé Maury amongst the clergy, from his eloquence though not from his rank, for he is universally agreed to

‘ * If it was possible, which happily it is not, to taint English minds at once with French principles, it is not merely our *King*, our *Nobility*, our *Clergy*, it is our *whole body of Country Gentlemen* that would be ruined.’

be one of the most able *extempore* speakers ; a talent which few Frenchman as yet possess.

‘ This party were supposed to be connected with the detested party of the Comte d’Artois, the princes of Condé and Conti, the Polignacs, the queen (influenced by the Polignacs who had long held supreme ascendancy over her) and in short, all the courtiers whose vices and expences were said to have occasioned the misfortunes of the state. I myself believe that it was the violence of the commons which drove the astocratics into this *very august*, but in the common opinion *very bad* company : of this, however, every reader must judge for himself. Not one member of the Third Estate ventured to declare himself of this faction.

‘ 2dly. The moderate or middle party, who though averse to the distinction of three separate orders, wished for a *British Constitution*, or as that phrase implies a little *British vanity*, let it be called a *Constitution founded on the principle of reciprocal controul*. Mounier led this party in the Third Estate, and along with him M. Bergasse, and M. Malouet, deputy from Auvergne. Lally Tolendal, son to the famous and unfortunate Lally, and the Comte de Clermont-Tonnerre led this party in the house of nobles, and the bishop of Langres was its chief partisan amongst the clergy.

‘ The work called *l’Ami du Roi*, though it disapproves its principles, considers it as a party formed mostly of virtuous men, and hints, that for that reason it ever was and ever would be the least numerous party. Whoever compares that courtly work with the opposite letter of M. Depont to Mr. Burke, (taking its genuineness for granted) will find that the majority both on the courtly and popular sides, agreed in disliking a close imitation of the British constitution. If the like prejudice should appear in some English writers against the new French institutions, their own example should prevent Frenchmen and their admirers from severely condemning it. Of the five professed adherents to the *British principle of reciprocal controul*, Mounier and Lally are in exile, Clermont-Tonnerre, Malouet and the bishop of Langres, have only staid behind to experience repeated affronts and ill usage.

‘ In the third place must stand the most considerable and triumphant democratic party, whose leaders are too numerous to recite. The bishop of Autun, and the curate Gregoire amongst the clergy, M. Chapelier, a lawyer deputed from Rennes, Barnave, a protestant deputed from Dauphiny, Rabaud de St. Etienne, a protestant clergyman deputed from Nimes, Pethion de Villeneuve, Charles de Lameth, and Roberespierre amongst the commons, may be named as the principal. But it is private and separate

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views of a subdivision of this party led by the famous Mirabeau, that the royalists attribute most of the cruel scenes which have disgraced the rising liberty of France.'

Mirabeau is represented, we believe with justice, in the most odious colours: a man in private life detestable, in public violent, inconsistent, interested, the tool of the duke of Orleans, who was inveterate against the court, that opposed the marriage of his daughter with the eldest son of the count d'Artois.

These were the parties in this great scene, and what is represented as the usual prelude to the opening of the states-general, the verification of powers was the awful signal of hostilities. In England, the return of a member's name to the crown-office annexed to the writ, is the proof of election, which, if not petitioned against, is, by that return, considered as legal; in the states-general, each return is scrutinised by the assembly. The consequences of this first measure we have already noticed; but, when this arduous work was completed, and the assembly, in the new language of democracy, was become an 'active one,' their first step was, in our author's opinion, improper. They voted the contributions levied to be illegal, but no positive statute had declared their illegality, and it is an *ex post facto* law: they abolished also the old taxes before they provided new ones, and reduced the peaceable citizens, who continued to pay the taxes, to the imputation of irregularity and disobedience.

The contests, in consequence of the proposals for the union of the three orders are also sufficiently known, as well as the attention with which the clergy were courted by the democrats, by those who afterwards deprived them of their property. Yet our author, who shows on every occasion, some aristocratical bias is, we believe, in this point misled. If the clergy consist of 130,000, more than 100,000 are benefited by the change; and another circumstance, which he indeed reprobates, should have been rather the object of the warmest resentment, we mean the committee of mendicity. The riches of the church were partially divided: to many unworthy prelates much was given, and a great number of respectable curés were contented with a pittance much inferior to their present stipends; but, independent of these fonds, a great part of the revenues of the church were directed to the relief of the poor, and it will appear on the whole, that, independent of the injustice of the measure, the assembly, in the eagerness of their enthusiasm, have thrown into the general coffers, and for the benefit of the state, what must be again issued for the very purposes to which it has been hitherto allotted. When the

assignats can be no longer issued, the provisions for the poor will make the deficit still more enormous than it was before.

The king's offer, at the royal sessions, is considered as in some respects too complicated, and in others not sufficiently explicit ; yet, in our author's opinion, it contains as much liberty as the French were then capable of enjoying. The historian apostrophises the democratical leaders in this part of his Sketch, and expostulates with them on the enormities through which the metaphysical system has been pursued, when this rational one was within their reach. We dare not say that these gentlemen, with all the future scenes before their eyes, would have rejected the visionary phantom now pursued ; nor let us be censured as uncharitable with facts and circumstances before our eyes, with opinions uttered with little reserve, still tingling in our ears. In our situation, we have treated them with a candour they have little merited, and which we know they would not have imitated. In their more secret moments, they have confessed as much. But to return.

We see no very particular subject of remark, though we must commend our author's reflections on the gifts of monarchs, which, when once seized by the people, they have been usually enabled to retain, till we arrive at the memorable surprize of the Bastile.

‘ Had the gates of that horrible fortress opened to a *peaceable deputation* from the *Three Orders of the State*, charged with collecting materials to prove the necessity of those laws in favour of personal liberty, which the king himself had left to their consideration and free votes,—such a day would have deserved to be celebrated by *one universal jubilee* of all the *Friends of Freedom*. And I cannot yet see any reason to believe, but that such a glorious day would have taken place, if the constitution of the 23d of June had been accepted.

‘ But as the event now stands, the feelings of impartial men ought to remain suspended. *The taking of the Bastile has betrayed the secret of all governments, republican as well as monarchical* : it has proved that nothing can withstand the unanimous force of an enraged multitude : an awful truth ! upon which all *kings* and *senates* should meditate in trembling silence, but of which the multitude ought ever to remain ignorant.

‘ Is this speaking like a friend of despotism ? Then let me ask those scholars, with which our sect of independents is undoubtedly well provided, whether Tacitus is a friend to despotism ? and then, whether he expresses any *transport* at the *fall of Nero* ? Can they not perceive, through the veil of his obscure conciseness, that his deep searching mind was more affected with the misfor-

tunes threatened to the Roman empire, from the want of *subordination* of the *soldiery*, than gratified by the death of a single tyrant, although he was the most enormous monster that ever disgraced humanity? What panegyrics are bestowed, both by Tacitus and by Pliny, on Virginius Rufus, whose uncommon merit was to have refused the empire from the hands of the soldiery, and told his army, that he would not take arms against a tyrant, until the Senate had ordered him!

It is remarked, in another place, that when the democrats wanted the assistance of the military, the soldier was declared not to be a machine: when in possession of power, the language is different. ‘The essence of an armed military force is obedience.’ On the return of M. Necker, the failings of that weak inefficient politician are the subject of some remarks; but we think the historian does not notice the principal error, that indecision which taught each party to look on him as an enemy, and gave no encouragement to either to trust him as a friend. The different facts supposed to have occurred in the provinces, we mean the licentious cruelties and enormities of the mob, are also too particularly related, on the authority of M. Lally. The same facts are shortly mentioned, it is added on the authority of the democratic author of ‘L’Histoire de la Revolution.’ Mirabeau speaks of them with indifference, and the national assembly seemed always willing to elude the enquiry. They cannot be wholly true, and the line is with difficulty drawn; yet the lowest of the mob, cowards the most contemptible, poltroons the most detestable, when subordination is for a moment levelled, may, undoubtedly, be guilty of the worst enormities.

The ‘glorious night,’ of the fourth of August, when by acclamation, almost by inspiration, privileges, immunities, tythes, &c. were resigned by all orders, occasions some remarks which it may be necessary to notice shortly. The whole number of abuses removed, or at least voted in this way, were not, in our author’s opinion, likely to do so much real good, to promote such a lasting concord between rich and poor, as *one* grievance removed by *one* bill framed in consequence of real enquiry and impartial discussion in the English parliament. It is, indeed, probable, that what is thus rashly given away may be secretly resumed, or secret attempts will be made for that purpose: enthusiasm, in proportion to its violence is transitory, and the inconvenience remains, when the patriotic fit is at an end. The more cool metaphysical disquisition respecting the rights of man now engaged the assembly’s notice; and it is remarked in the Sketch before us, that this curious work not only engaged them too long, but its inconsistency, on one hand, with what was afterwards

done respecting ecclesiastics, and on the other with the state of their West India slaves, shows that it was a rash inconsiderate undigested attempt.

The supposed intention of the king to escape to Metz cannot at present be elucidated. From the circumstances in which the king and queen were, it is probable, that such an attempt was in contemplation. If it was so, however, the idea must have been suddenly conceived at the dinner of the officers; for if it had been planned previously, they would not have appeared there, or they would have taken advantage of the moment of returning loyalty to put it into immediate execution. There are some insinuations of a plot against the person of the king, and it is hinted, that he might have been urged to the escape, and, in the tumult that might have ensued, been destroyed. This plot is attributed to Mirabeau, whose object was to raise the duke of Orleans to the regency, and ultimately, perhaps, to the throne. The events, which brought on and terminated the removal of the king to Paris, are yet little known. Our author leans to the account given by Mr. Burke from M. Lally Tollendal, and admits only, that the sentinel recovered from his wounds, and that the searching the queen's bed is a fact not clearly ascertained.

“ Mirabeau, at the very moment of the Assembly’s departure for Paris, proposed an address to the provinces, in which it was metaphorically said, that now “the vessel of public business would “ proceed in its course more rapidly than ever.” This proposal excited indignation in many minds, as it seemed to convey a manifest approbation of the plot formed to force the national assembly into Paris. Mirabeau was looked on with abhorrence by one party, with suspicion by all, and the slender reed on which he had tried to lean failed him at once. La Fayette had neither forgotten nor forgiven the disobedient spirit of his troops on the 5th of October; he certainly attributed it to the Duc of Orleans’s agents, though we know not exactly on what proofs he grounded his opinion; and he has certainly drove the Duc of Orleans into his well-known journey to England, though we are not acquainted with the private conversations that passed on the occasion. It was attested before the Chatelet, that when Mirabeau heard of the Duc of Orleans’s resolution, he abused him with all the *energy* of the French *vulgar tongue*, and concluded by exclaiming, “ He “ does not deserve the trouble that has been taken for his sake!” Mirabeau, in his speech of defence against the Chatelet, owned, that “indignation made him utter indiscreet and insolent speeches,” without confessing precisely what they were.”

Various circumstances, which show the intimate connection between Mirabeau and the duke of Orleans, are added in different

ferent parts of the work ; and many reasons to think that Mirabeau, in all his propositions to the assembly, was not actuated by that patriotic, disinterested spirit which he always professed to feel. In the amount of the king's civil list, and the declaration in favour of Spain, he was neither the friend of liberty, nor of his country.

The attack on nobility, on the armorial bearings, is very properly represented by our author as a studied insult, and not less affecting, because the latter was a trifling object. We always considered it as mean, unmanly, and injudicious. It was the business of the assembly to conciliate all parties, to engage all in the general cause : the nobles were laid low, and some might, at last, have assisted them ; the whole united, might have at least teized them, and retarded their great work. They are struggling at this moment with the consequences of this rash act. The remarks on the internal regulation of the administration, and the committee of mendicity, are worth transcribing.

‘ The internal administration of the government and police of the kingdom may be ranked under this head, and the division of the kingdom into municipalities included within the districts and answerable to them, whilst the districts are included within and answerable to the elective administrations of the eighty larger departments ; this division, I say, this gradual scale of elective powers, has been the subject of, to some writers, unbounded admiration. But where is the highest point of this political scale, and to what power are the eighty departments answerable ? This is somewhat like the question which is said to puzzle an Indian philosopher : “ the world is supported by an elephant, the elephant by a tortoise—*Very well, but how is the tortoise supported?*”

‘ It will appear to all who read the debates of this last spring, that the national assembly have often felt this difficulty, however their friends in England may have disregarded it. They dare not entrust any effectual power of controul to king or minister, and to erect any body of magistrates, with power to call these petty republics to account, would be *aristocracy*, a word more odious to a Frenchman's ears than *despotism* itself.

‘ Whilst the subject of internal police is mentioned, it may be proper to observe, that the assembly, who have scornfully rejected that *independence of judges* which even republicans in England have never attacked, have frequently shewn a disposition to adopt our system of *poors rates*, that part of our internal government which speculative writers have most questioned, and for which a hundred plans of reformation have been proposed, though none have been yet carried into execution. If the committee of mendicity, as it is called,

called, can hit upon any plan that can reconcile humanity, œconomy, and the due encouragement of industry, may they prosper in their views ! England, in this instance will not deny that it may be outdone. But first let a native of England be allowed to tell the French democrats a truth, which few Englishmen will deny. The internal management of our parishes is one of the most democratic parts of our constitution, and at the same time one of the most abused. The churchwardens and overseers elected by the *Tiers-Etat* of England, and answerable to that alone, are frequently accused of gross corruption, litigiousness, and inhumanity. And on the whole, the best-managed parishes, and those where the poor are most kindly treated, are those that are superintended by landed gentlemen of considerable property and family long resident in the neighbourhood, that order of society at present so persecuted and degraded in France.'

An account of different riots, the supineness of the assembly, and the different events, which conclude the year 1790, we need not particularly detail ; they contain no very important event ; but our author's reflections are judicious, and we might occasionally transcribe with approbation, or animadvert a little on different passages, if our limits would admit. In the Appendix to this first part, there are various documents and illustrations of the narrative. There is a curious distinction in the attention which the assembly paid to the different states of America. In reply to the compliment, on account of their wearing mourning on the death of Franklin, their complaisance to Pennsylvania was unbounded : to the other states, not so purely democratical, the neglect of a form was deemed sufficient to induce them to preserve a sullen silence.

The second part carries on the narrative to the dissolution of the assembly ; but the facts are better known, and more clearly ascertained : prejudice has not interposed her coloured veil, and atrocity has nothing very odious to hide, except at Avignon and Charpentras. The philosophical humanity of the assembly spared the lives of robbers, and decreed the punishment of death only to murder and high-treason. Their treasonable code, in its bloody form, is condemned by the historian, as no laws are so liable to be wrested to the purpose of faction and cruelty. At the same time, they took from the king the power of pardoning or commuting the punishment ; a necessary step, when the king and the people are in opposite parties. The flight of Louis, the resignation of M. Fayette, and his breaking the mutinous company of grenadiers, restored the nation to a little firmness and reflection. The conduct of the assembly became more conciliating, the troops obedient, and the riot of the 17th of July was crushed with firmness

firmness and spirit. We have little hesitation in adding, that if the former assembly could have continued two years longer, the revolution would have been established with tolerable security: at present, its disjointed, ill-connected parts, rather than foreign opposition, seem to portend its ruin.

The assumption of sovereignty, shown by that part of the constitution which prevents a change till four successive assemblies shall call for a revocation, or till the period mentioned for the revision, is considered by our author as improper; inconsistent with the first professions, and useless, if the people, at any period, choose to interfere. But this subject would require much discussion: it was necessary, perhaps, to give the innovating spirit time to cool, to suffer the proposed code to be fairly tried, and to repress every eager impetuous reformer. The house at last broke up, and 'a more remarkable surrender of absolute power has never,' it is added, 'taken place since the abdication of Sylla, though Sylla's abdication has not absolved his memory from the guilt of usurpation and tyrannical government.' This insinuation is not commendable; it is, indeed, in many respects reprehensible. The delegates were chosen by the people, they struggled with despotism, and they conquered. Numerous were, undoubtedly, their faults, but they did not betray the trust reposed in them; and, if they exceeded their instructions, it has not appeared, that their conduct has been condemned by their constituents: they have sunk into the rank of private citizens, if not innocent, unaccused, and if not always meritorious, unmolested.

The subsequent reflections display the judgment, the learning, the penetration of the author, and it must be owned, that in these he appeared a writer of no mean rank. We can only notice a few of these concluding observations. He professes himself an enemy to innovation, whatever is the government, and is unwilling to sacrifice tranquillity to a fancied perfection, or even a real melioration, if it be sought in the fields of civil contest. That these events will retard the progress of liberty, as he seems to think, or that the revolution in France will not prevent future wars, are opinions not equally clear. We suspect that, in both these opinions, he is mistaken; and though we ought to praise the extent of learning and the perspicuity of reasoning, with which the last is supported, we could show, if the limits of a Journal admitted such disquisitions, that his instances and arguments are not always applicable to the present state of society. The observations on the revolution in Poland are very judicious and proper. The effects of the revolution on the neighbouring countries, particularly Liege and Avignon, are not, indeed,

deed, very inviting: the revolution of Avignon is detailed at some length, and a horrid tale it is. Humanity shudders at reflecting on these first fruits of universal peace, and if among these, the riots of Birmingham be reckoned, the view will be more dreadful. Whatever may in the issue be proved against the churchmen on this subject, must certainly be ultimately referred to the unadvised rash language of their opponents.— Language did we say? It was more, for those who could endeavour to draw partizans from the remotest corner of the kingdom, who could correspond with every insignificant club of artists, who could unite all these into *one* body, at *one* moment, under pretence of celebrating the French Revolution, at a time too, so near to that when a numerous assembly had drawn the nation into the most imminent danger, can scarcely be supposed to have the affairs of France only in their view. They prepared an earthquake, but it was lost in a distant clap of thunder, whose direction was very different from what was intended. We have only room to add, that our author quotes some doubtful passages, which appeared in the democratic journals of Paris at that æra, and hint at an impending insurrection in England: they *may*, however, have been accidental.

The Statistical Account of Scotland. Drawn up from the Communications of the Ministers of the different Parishes. By J. Sinclair, Bart. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. boards. Stockdale. 1791.

IT appears that about two years ago, sir John Sinclair circulated among the clergy of the church of Scotland a variety of queries, for the purpose of elucidating the natural history and political state of that country. His original idea was, to have drawn up from their returns a general statistical view of North Britain, without any particular reference to parochial districts. But he found such merit and ability, and so many useful facts and important observations in the answers which were sent him, that he could not think of depriving the clergy of the credit they were entitled to derive from such laborious exertions; and he was thence induced to give the work to the public in its present shape; distinguishing the different parishes, but independently of any geographical, or other mode of connexion between them.

Sir John Sinclair observes, that it would have been more desirable to have had the accounts of the different parishes arranged by presbyteries or counties, for the purpose of connexion, and to prevent repetition, where the circumstances of the different districts were nearly similar. But it was not to be

be expected that complete information respecting any one of the larger divisions of the kingdom, could be at once obtained. It was therefore thought most advisable to throw as much variety as possible into the first volume. Whether the same plan is to be persevered in, or whether more regularity and connexion are to be attended to in future, will depend on the unanimity and dispatch with which the clergy transmit the necessary information to the author.

The second volume is conducted entirely in the same manner as the first. Mr. Dempster has justly observed 'That no publication of equal information and curiosity has appeared in Great Britain since Doomsday-Book; and that from the ample and authentic facts which it records, it must be resorted to by every future statesman, philosopher, and divine, as the best basis that has ever yet appeared for political speculation.'

The plan proposed by sir John Sinclair for drawing up the statistical account of the different parishes, is of so extensive a nature as to comprehend every article worthy of attention; and we are glad to find that the clergy, whose information is published in these two volumes, have so generally adopted it.

The first parish described in the work is that of Jedburgh, in the account of which we meet with the following observations on the effects of the union on the borders:

'The union of the parliaments of England and Scotland, has in some respects produced an effect very different from what might have been expected from it. Instead of promoting the increase, it has contributed to the diminution, of the people upon the borders. Besides, the influence of various natural propensities, which induced men to flock to the scene where active talents were constantly employed, honour acquired, and the strongest national antipathies gratified, there were obvious considerations of interest, which rendered the situation of the borders more eligible, after violence and hostility were repressed, by the union of the two crowns, and the consequent interposition of the legislature of both kingdoms. The inhabitants of the borders, while the taxes and the commercial regulations of the two kingdoms were different, enjoyed the opportunity of carrying on a very advantageous contraband trade, without danger to their persons or fortunes. Into England they imported, salt, skins, and malt, which, till the union, paid no duties in Scotland; and from England they carried back wool, which was exported from the Frith of Forth to France, with great profit. The vestiges of forty malt-barns and kilns are now to be seen in the town of Jedburgh, while at present there are only three in actual occupation; and the corporation of skinners and glovers, formerly the most wealthy in that town,

town, have, since the union, greatly diminished, both in regard to opulence and number. The proprietors of estates upon the borders were well aware of the detriment which their property would suffer by the incorporating union; and in general strenuously opposed it; and the commissioners for carrying on that treaty, were so sensible of the loss they would sustain, -that they agreed to appropriate part of the equivalent money, as it was called, to their indemnification and benefit.

‘ The union has also been the cause of the depopulation of the border country, by enlarging the sphere, and facilitating the means of emigration. While the two countries were in a hostile state, there was neither inducement nor opportunity to move from the one to the other. The inhabitants often made inroads upon one another; but when the incursion was over, they returned to their own homes. Their antipathy and resentments were a rampart which excluded all social intercourse, and mixture of inhabitants. In this situation, misconduct and infamy at home were the only motives to emigration, and while this was the case, the exchange of inhabitants would be nearly at a par: but after the union of the two kingdoms, and the decline or extinction of national antipathies, the balance arising from the interchange of inhabitants would run much in favour of the more wealthy country. Artificers and labourers would naturally resort where wages were higher, and all the accommodations of life were more plentiful, especially if this could be effected without the unpleasing idea of relinquishing home. To pass from the borders of Scotland into Northumberland, was rather like going into another parish than into another kingdom.’

A turnpike road, it seems, is now carried from Jedburgh to Newcastle, which shortens the distance from that town to Edinburgh considerably; and we are told that there is at present a prospect of carrying one, in a direct line, from Jedburgh to Boroughbridge in Yorkshire, which could not fail of being frequented, as it would render the road between London and Edinburgh shorter by thirty-eight miles than by Berwick.

In the parish of Kirkmichael there prevails a custom which deserves to be mentioned.

‘ When any of the lower people happen to be reduced by sickness, losses, or misfortunes of any kind, a friend is sent to as many of their neighbours as they think needful, to invite them to what they call a *drinking*. This drinking consists in a little small beer, with a bit of bread and cheese, and sometimes a small glass of brandy or whisky, previously provided by the needy persons, or their friends. The guests convene at the time appointed, and, after collecting a shilling a-piece, and sometimes more, they divert themselves for about a couple of hours, with music and dancing,

eing, and then go home. Such as cannot attend themselves, usually send their charitable contribution by any neighbour that chooses to go. These meetings sometimes produce 5, 6, or 7 pounds, to the needy person or family.'

From the account of the parish of Crofsmichael, justice requires that we admit the following extract :

‘ The Galloway cattle have one characteristic which naturalists may think incredible; they are almost all without horns ! Dr. Samuel Johnson, in his journey to the Western Islands, (London edition, 1775, pag. 186), has the following notable passage : “ Of their black cattle, some are without horns, called by the Scots humble cows, as we call a bee a humble bee that wants a sting. Whether this difference be specific or accidental, though we inquired *with great diligence*, we could not be informed. We are not very sure that the bull is ever without horns, though we have been told that such bulls there are. What is produced by putting a horned and an unhorned male and female together, no man has ever tried, who thought the result worthy of observation.” Though it may favour of arrogance, the high authority quoted must be flatly contradicted. There is not within the bounds of this parish a single bull, nor a male of any other species, except a few goats and rams; with horns. The experiment the philosopher wished for, has been tried a thousand times, and the result has been observed to be a *calf*, sometimes with, and sometimes without horns, but never, as the doctor most probably expected, an *unicorn*.’

The clergyman who gives the account of Lismore, observes, that the extent of this parish will hardly be credited by an inhabitant of the south of Scotland; being, from the south-west end of it, to the north-east in Appin, sixty-three miles long, by ten, and, in some places, sixteen broad. It is farther remarkable of this parish, that it contains neither rats, moles, nor foxes. Weasels made their first appearance in it within these twelve years. In the adjoining districts of Appin and Kingerloch, there are moles, weasels, white rats, martins, polecats, common and mountain hares; the latter of these, in the winter, is as white as snow.

The writer of the statistical account of Kilmarnock describes a mode of thatching, which may justly be regarded as an improvement in rural œconomy.

‘ There is nothing that would be more desirable, than to discover some method of covering the roofs of farm-houses, so as to render them cheap and comfortable. A slate roof is too expensive in many parts of the country, from the difficulty of getting either

either the timber, or the slate. Tile roofs do not last, and common thatching is of very short duration, is more liable to the danger of fire, affords shelter and encouragement to vermin, and is very apt to be destroyed by violent winds. But there is a mode of thatching with straw and mortar, introduced into the neighbourhood of Kilmarnock, about 22 years ago, in consequence of a receipt given by the late Mr. Macdowal of Garthland, which is, in many respects, preferable to every other, for the northern parts of the island.—The thatching is carried on in the usual manner; only mortar, very well prepared, and mixed with cut straw, is thinly spread over the strata of thatch, with a large trowel made for the purpose. One expert thatcher will require two men to serve him with straw, one to prepare the mortar, and a fourth to carry it up. If the work is properly done, it will make a covering which will last 40 or 50 years; and, when it begins to fail, it can easily be repaired. Sometimes clay is used instead of mortar, and answers nearly as well. As it makes a most excellent roof, the timbers ought to be good, and the spars straight, and neatly put on, that there may be no heights and hollows in it. Such a roof will stand in the most exposed situation, against the most violent winds; gives no shelter to vermin; is not near so much in danger of fire; and though a little more expensive at first than the common thatch, yet does much more than compensate for that circumstance, by its being so extremely durable.'

The poor-rates in England, it is well known, are severely felt; and in different parts in Scotland the evil seems likewise to be experienced. It were to be wished, says one of the contributors to the present work, that the poor could be maintained by voluntary contributions, rather than by assessment. The latter method has a tendency to increase their number, and to encourage dissipation and idleness. 'It extinguishes charity in those who give it, as they give from compulsion, and prevents gratitude in those who receive, since they receive it as a right.'

Fortingal is another parish of great extent, and comprises a district of the Highlands which was formerly infamous for the ungovernable rapacity of its inhabitants. How great a change has been produced, of late years, in the state of this country, will appear from the following extract:

'Before the year 1745, Ranoch was in an uncivilized barbarous state, under no check, or restraint of laws. As an evidence of this, one of the principal proprietors, never could be compelled to pay his debts. Two messengers were sent from Perth, to give him a charge of horning. He ordered a dozen of his retainers to bind them across two hand-barrows, and carry them, in this

this state, to the bridge of Cainachan, at 9 miles distance. His property in particular was a nest of thieves. They laid the whole country, from Stirling to Coupar of Angus, under contribution, obliging the inhabitants to pay them, Black Meal, as it is called, to save their property from being plundered. This was the center of this kind of traffic. In the months of September and October, they gathered to the number of about 300, built temporary huts, drank whisky all the time, settled accounts for stolen cattle, and received balances. Every man then bore arms. It would have required a regiment to have brought a thief from that country. But government having sent a party of soldiers to reside among them, and a thief having been hung at their doors, they soon felt the necessity of reformation, and they are now as honest, and as strict a set of people, in these matters, as any in the kingdom.

‘ In the year 1754, the country was almost impassible. There were no roads, nor bridges. Now, by the statute-labour, we have got excellent roads, and 12 bridges. In a few years, we shall have other two, which is all that could be desired. The people contribute chearfully and liberally to build them, and this preserves many lives.

‘ At the above period, the bulk of the tenants in Ranoch had no such thing as beds. They lay on the ground, with a little heather, or fern, under them. One single blanket was all their bed-cloaths, excepting their body-cloaths. Now they have standing-up beds, and abundance of blankets. At that time, the houses in Ranoch were huts of, what they called, “ Stake and Rife.” One could not enter but on all fours; and after entering, it was impossible to stand upright. Now there are comfortable houses built of stone. Then the people were miserably dirty, and foul-skinned. Now they are as cleanly; and are clothed as well as their circumstances will admit of. The rents of the parish, at that period, were not much above 1500l. and the people were starving. Now they pay 4660l. *per annum*, and upwards, and the people have fulness of bread.

‘ It is hardly possible to believe, on how little the Highlanders formerly lived. They bled their cows several times in the year, boiled the blood, eat a little of it like bread, and a most lasting meal it was. The present incumbent has known a poor man, who had a small farm hard by him, by this means, with a boll of meal for every mouth in his family, pass the whole year.’

We cannot conclude our account of these two volumes without subscribing to the remark, that they contain a fund of intelligence, no less calculated to gratify curiosity than to extend, for the most useful purposes, the bounds of political information. It appears evident, from the accurate testimony

C. R. N. AR. (IV.) April, 1792.

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of the reverend gentlemen who have contributed to the work, that since the year 1755, when an account of the population of Scotland was procured by the late Dr. Webster, the number of inhabitants is, in many parts of the country, much increased; and both in agriculture and manufactures, improvement is equally conspicuous. The clergy in Scotland seem, in general, to have a comfortable, though not an ample subsistence; but the provision for the schoolmasters, in almost all the parishes, is miserably defective. We find, however, that there is a plan in agitation for remedying this evil; and it requires to be carried into execution with all possible dispatch. The present work, by diffusing over Scotland the observations and experience collected from every district, must greatly promote the farther improvement of the country; and it ought to be attended with the additional effect, of exciting government to co-operate, with all its power, in every scheme for accomplishing that object. Many useful hints for this purpose may be found in the Statistical Account.—It is imagined, that when the work is completed, it will consist of about ten volumes; and every friend to the interests of the nation must wish for the successful execution of a design, which promises not only literary entertainment, but great advantage to the public.

The Romance of the Forest: interspersed with some Pieces of Poetry. By the Authoress of 'A Sicilian Romance, &c.'
 • 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. sewed. Hookham. 1791.

WE spoke with respect of the Sicilian Romance; but this lady *, for by the term (*authoress*) we must suppose it to be the production of a female's pen, has greatly exceeded her first work. The novel before us engages the attention strongly, and interests the feelings very powerfully: the general style of the whole, as well as the reflections, deserve also commendation. The greater part of the work resembles, in *manner*, the old English Baron, formed on the model of the Castle of Otranto. We have the ruined abbey, a supposed ghost, the skeleton of a man secretly murdered, with all the horrid train of images which such scenes and such circumstances may be supposed to produce. They are managed, however, with skill, and do not disgust by their improbability: every thing is consistent, and within the verge of rational belief: the attention

* In the advertisement to the second edition, she styles herself *Ann Ratcliffe*, and we have no authority for prefixing *Miss* or *Mrs.*

is uninterruptedly fixed, till the veil is designedly withdrawn. One great mark of the author's talents is, that the events are concealed with the utmost art, and even suspicion sometimes designedly misled, while, in the conclusion, every extraordinary appearance seems naturally to arise from causes not very uncommon. The characters are varied with skill, and often dexterously contrasted.

In the third volume, the scenes are changed, and we are led to the wild and more picturesque scenes of Savoy. The descriptions are in this place often beautiful, and seem to be drawn from personal examination. The family of De Luc, the worthy venerable pastor of Leloncourt, are described with equal feeling and elegance. We shall make no apology for copying one of the scenes in this neighbourhood.

‘ They pursued their way along the borders of the lake, sometimes under the shade of hanging woods, and sometimes over hillocks of turf, where the scene opened in all its wild magnificence. M. Verneuil often stopped in raptures to observe and point out the singular beauties it exhibited, while La Luc, pleased with the delight his friend expressed, surveyed with more than usual satisfaction the objects which had so often charmed him before. But there was a tender melancholy in the tone of his voice and his countenance, which arose from the recollection of having often traced those scenes, and partook of the pleasure they inspired, with her who had long since bade them an eternal farewell.

‘ They presently quitted the lake, and, winding up a steep ascent between the woods, came, after an hour's walk, to a green summit, which appeared, among the savage rocks that environed it, like the blossom on the thorn. It was a spot formed for solitary delight, inspiring that soothing tenderness so dear to the feeling mind, and which calls back to memory the images of passed regret, softened by distance and endeared by frequent recollection. Wild shrubs grew from the crevices of the rocks beneath, and the high trees of pine and cedar that waved above, afforded a melancholy and romantic shade. The silence of the scene was interrupted only by the breeze as it rolled over the woods, and by the solitary notes of the birds that inhabited the cliffs.

‘ From this point the eye commanded an entire view of those majestic and sublime alps whose aspect fills the soul with emotions of indescribable awe, and seems to lift it to a nobler nature. The village, and the chateau of La Luc appeared in the bosom of the mountains, a peaceful retreat from the storms that gathered on their tops. All the faculties of M. Verneuil were absorbed in admiration, and he was for some time quite silent; and length, bursting into a rhapsody, he turned, and would have addressed La Luc, when he perceived him at a distance leaning against a rustic urn,

over which drooped, in beautiful luxuriance, the weeping willow.

‘As he approached, La Luc quitted his position, and advanced to meet him, while M. Verneuil inquired upon what occasion the urn had been erected. La Luc, unable to answer, pointed to it, and walked silently away.’

If it may appear, that we have commended this novel with an eager warmth, we can only say, in apology for it, that we have copied our real sentiments. The lady is wholly unknown to us, and probably will ever continue so. We must, however, consider ‘The Romance of the Forest’ as one of the first works in this line of novel-writing that we have seen.

*Anna St. Ives, a Novel. By Thomas Holcroft. 7 Vols. 12mo.
1l. 1s. Shepperson. 1792.*

IT is necessary, in tracing the revolutions of literature, to mark each new æra, from which improvements or alterations in any style of writing may be dated. We have seen the levelling principle, the pretended philosophy of modern times, rising above the systems and the opinions for ages held sacred; and, bursting the confines of speculation, boldly trying the practicability of its plans on a very extensive scale. The process still goes on; and, while the event is uncertain, though we may offer our opinions, or call the experiment rash, we dare not decide on its success, or on the sum of happiness likely to result from it on the whole. In this ebullition of sentiments, an enterprising female rises to put in her claim for the ‘Rights of Woman;’ and, to complete the climax, a philosophical leveller becomes the hero of a novel.

Frank Henley is the son of sir Arthur St. Ives’ projector and surveyor, the director of his improvements at Wembourne Hall, an artful, treacherous, and dishonest steward. Frank is, however, the mirror of *modern* excellence; cool, decisive, able, and philosophical. But, with courage to face danger and death in its worst forms, he is more than once beaten, because duelling is against the rule of right; and following his strict lessons of morality, degenerates on some occasions into a coward. He loves Anna St. Ives; who, before she is thoroughly converted to the modern system, seems to prefer Clifton; and, though his love is violent, it is still kept within the bounds of reason. No murmur is heard, no sigh escapes. At the hazard of his own life he saves his rival from drowning, in a manner which leads to a suspicion of his own insanity; and which, if he had failed, might have very justly subjected him to the suspicion of *improving* the accident to his

own advantage. Anna loves Clifton; but her love is rational and philosophical. She discusses the subject at first with coolness; but rising in her enthusiasm, she kisses Frank, boasts of this kiss to Clifton's sister, and afterwards to himself. Clifton's sister, who has a *touch* of this philosophy, though fond of her brother, makes no objection to the kissing, and even pleads the cause of Frank Henley. Clifton, whose character is well drawn, ably and consistently supported, is not quite so philosophical. Anna's partiality in favour of Frank, the long solitary walks with her philosopher, the contempt which she freely expresses for Clifton, produce some very natural *antiphilosophical* effects, and drive him to desperate measures. He designs to force her to his will, but is awed by her reasoning, and not able to trust himself with this female reasoner, seizes her and Henley, confines him in a mad-house, and the lady in a separate, solitary mansion. All this part of the story is well told; the situations are interesting and affecting.—The lovers escape; Clifton is wounded almost mortally, but becomes a convert to *reason*, is allowed to live, and the passions, *of course*, subside. Anna is married to Henley.

Such is the outline of a story, absurd, often insipid, and unreasonably extended; but the character of Clifton, and the last volume, though the denouement is a little too abrupt and artificial, rise greatly above the rest of the work. It displays, however, no little defect in judgment to connect these events with the modern reasoning system, and with the *dramatis personæ* of levelling principle. Similar absurdities occur in the *New Heloise*; but the warmth, the imagination of the author, language the most polished, ideas the most seductive, by their glare lessen the impropriety. Here they are canvassed, if disgust will for a moment admit the examination, in their native forms; they must consequently be almost instantaneously rejected; and, if it were the intention of the author to ridicule the new doctrines, he could not have taken a more effectual step. But there are a few more serious exceptions. Reason, the dignity of virtue, or a consistent propriety, is the deity looked up to in the greatest distresses: cunning and dishonesty succeed in their schemes; and, in one place, the force of an absolute promise is artfully attempted to be evaded. These are faults which demand the severest reprehension, and compel us to disapprove of the work in general. The fashion, we trust, will not prevail, and the period of philosophical lovers will probably begin and end with Frank Henley.

A concise History of the County and City of Chester, from the most authentic and respectable Authors; with descriptive and lively Observations on the Manners, Customs, &c. of the Inhabitants. Also the Life of St. Werburgh, the memorable Founder of the Cathedral of Chester. Embellished with an elegant ground Plan of the City and Suburbs of Chester, taken from a recent Survey. Small 8vo. 2s. Sael. 1791.

WHILE several places of inferior note have become subjects of particular research, it would be surprising if Chester had not likewise its provincial historian. It is doubtless a town of great antiquity; though we may be allowed, without the imputation of scepticism, to abate a little of the date affixed to its origin by sir Thomas Elliot; according to whom, the original name of this city was *Neomagus*, so called from *Magus*, son of *Samothes*, son of *Japhet*, its founder, 240 years after the flood. ‘An assertion which, our author justly observes, if duly authenticated, places it on a line of antiquity with any other city in the universe.’ Its second name, we are told, was *Caerleon*, so called from *Leon Vaser*, or *Gawr*; who, as some writers say, was a giant in Albion, and one of its restorers. Upon the settlement of the Britons it was next called *Caerleil*, and afterwards *Caerlier*, because these two British kings were enlargers and beautifiers of it, according to *Stone* and others.

So much for what may be called the fabulous history of Chester. Under the Roman government, it appears to have also different names. Sometimes it is called *Cestria*; at other times *Deunana*, *Deva*, or *Devana Civitas*, from its proximity to the *Dee*. In later ages it was styled *Legan Chester*, and *Lege Chester*; but in these days *West Chester*, or *Chester*. It is supposed to have been the capital of the *Ordovices*, before the arrival of the Romans in this island.

This ancient and pleasant city stands upon the borders of the river *Dee*, about twenty miles south-east from the nearest part of the Irish Channel. It is accounted a very healthy situation, as standing chiefly on a dry sandy stone rock. Though it be not the seat of any staple manufacture, the number of inhabitants, at present, is said to amount to fifteen thousand, and is annually increasing. For the information of such of our readers as have never been at Chester, we present them with the description of the singular plan on which it has been erected.

‘ The city is of a square form, which evinces the origin to have been Roman, being in the figure of their camps, with four gates facing the four points, four principal streets, and a variety of lesser

fer, crossing the others at right angles, dividing the whole into lesser squares. The walls are built on a soft freestone rock, high above the circumjacent country; and are said to have been built by the Mercian lady Ethelfleda.

‘ The structure of the four principal streets is without parallel; they run direct from east to west, and north to south, and were excavated out of the earth, and sunk many feet beneath the surface. The carriages are driven far below the level of the kitchens, on a line with ranges of shops, over which passengers walk in galleries, which the inhabitants call the rows, secure from wet or heat. In the rows are likewise ranges of shops, and steps to descend into the street.’

Several Roman antiquities have been discovered about Chester at different times. Among these is an altar, erected by Flavius Longus, tribune of the 20th legion, and his son Longinus, in honour of the emperor Dioclesian and Maximian; and a statue of Mithras. Coins of Vespasian, Constantius, Trajan, Hadrian, &c. have at different times been found.

In the account which the author gives of earls of Chester, we meet with the following ludicrous anecdote.

‘ Ranulph fought a retreat, from the attacks of the Welsh, in the castle of Rhuddlan; which underwent a violent siege for some time;—till Roger Lacy, constable of Chester, collected a formidable band of fiddlers, and other motley minstrels, who had assembled together at a fair at Chester, founded by Hugh Lupus, one leading privilege of which was, the protection of whores, rogues, thieves, and vagabonds, of every denomination, during its continuance, from restraint of punishment.—With this *regiment of rosiners* did Roger march into Wales, where, strange to tell, they played so *good a tune*, that it in a short time *closed* with the *raising* of the siege;—for which service, Ranulph rewarded Lacy with full power over all the *scrapers of catgut* in the county;—a privilege which his son transferred to the family of the Duttons, in Cheshire; and it is within the recollection of many persons now living, that the anniversary of this whimsical solemnity was regularly celebrated, on the festival of St. John the Baptist, by a procession of the minstrels to the church of their tutelar saint in Chester:—to the no small amusement of the spectators.’

The author afterwards gives an account of the city-walls, boundaries, corporation, churches, streets, &c. with a chronology of remarkable events in Chester; subjoining a ground-plan of the city, which appears to be accurately delineated. To the history of Chester, is added a summary of the life of St. Werburgh; with an historical account of the images upon her shrine (now the episcopal throne),

in the choir of Chester.—The author appears to have been industrious in his researches; and has mixed entertainment, as much as he could, with the information he has been able to collect.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

A Letter of Advice from a French Democrat to an English Revolutionist.
8vo. 1s. 6d. Deighton. 1792.

THE eager indiscriminating violence of a warm democrat comes so near to what a sober reflecting author would consider as open, obvious, well-pointed irony, that we have some difficulty in determining under which class the Letter should be arranged. We have good reasons for thinking the whole to be ironical; but the irony is not sufficiently clear, and the serious argument, in some parts which relates to the affairs of France, makes the design, on the whole, equivocal. The object of the democrat is to show his correspondent what steps should be pursued to compass another revolution in England; and, in this view, the Letter is of importance—‘Forewarned—forearmed.’

Representation and Petition from his Highness the Nabob of the Carnatic, presented to the House of Commons, March 5, 1792. 8vo.
1s. 6d. Debrett. 1792.

The mysterious politics of India are too deep and intricate to be fathomed by a literary Reviewer. We have carefully read over the petition, and think, after making every allowance, that the nabob Wau Lau Jau Ummeer ul Hind Omdat ul Mulk Ausuph ud Dowlah Unwer ud Dien Cawn Bahauder Zuphar Jung Separ Saular, sovereign and soubahdar of the Carnatic, Payenghaut, and Ballaghaut, has been hardly dealt with, though we perceive at the same time, that the said nabob Wau Lau, &c. &c. &c. seems to have been the first who broke the treaty, by suffering the arrears to accumulate wantonly and unreasonably.

A Letter to the Right Hon. W. Pitt, on the Subject of a Tax for raising six Millions sterling, and for employing that Sum in Loans to necessitous and industrious Persons. 4to. 1s. Debrett. 1792.

The plan of this benevolent author's project is briefly as follows: That the sum of six millions sterling be raised by a capitation, or poll-tax: one million of which should remain in the hands of government during the term of seven years; and five millions to be lent among honest and industrious tradesmen, manufacturers, and others, who stood in need of such assistance.

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That such a plan, judiciously regulated, would encrease public prosperity, seems highly probable; but the most faithful and impartial conduct of the trustees would be necessary for carrying it into execution. In justice to the projector, it may be proper to add, that the Letter is subscribed with the name of *Andrew Becket*.

An Address to the Right Hon. W. Pitt, on the Probability of a Revolution in this Country. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1792.

The old complaint of corruption in government, mixed and fermented with the doctrine of the Rights of Men.

The Question considered; How far the present flourishing State of the Nation is to be ascribed to the Conduct of the Minister. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1792.

The author of this pamphlet affects the strictest impartiality in the investigation of his subject; and we wish it could be added, that he has equally observed such a rule in the progress of his argument. The several public transactions which he considers are, indeed, the most proper *data* by which a judgment may be formed of the merit or demerit of administration; but he does not state the consequences of those *data* with sufficient accuracy; and in endeavouring to extenuate the good effects of certain public measures, he seems not to reflect that the prosperous state of the nation, which he readily admits, ought not to be ascribed to the operation of any one or more individual measures, considered separately, so much as to the general and complicated result of the whole. With respect to the author's idea, that an administration formed of men of great landed property, is preferable to one which is supported by public opinion, he is not likely to make many converts to his doctrines; and few, we believe, would rejoice in the security of an administration, which depended more upon its own aristocratical influence, than the general sentiments of the nation.

Memoirs of Hildebrand Freeman, Esq. or a Sketch of 'The Rights of Man.' A recent Story founded upon Facts, and written by Himself. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Edwards. 1792.

The Memoirs of this friend to the natural equality of mankind are designed to show practically the progress of the mind early tinctured with the levelling doctrines, and carefully investigating the subject from observation and reasoning. The descriptions of the proceedings of the national assembly seem to be copied on the spot, and we might have been tempted to transcribe the account, but that, from accident or design, it has already appeared in several of the newspapers. The following observations appear to us very accurate:

‘Gloomy

‘Gloomy as these experimental views were, I had still some glimmer of hope in the *laws*; these may, in time, thought I, regulate all abuses—They are now afloat upon a new principle, and it must be by the operation of these, and these alone, from which all good government can be expected. With this view I examined, with as much accuracy as I was able, the different branches of the civil, military, and œconomical departments, which I found so far from coalescing and serving mutual purposes, they rather checked than impeded each other. The original cause of all this I found to arise from two principal discordant parts in the government, viz. *democracy* and *royalty*.—The spirit of the new government consisted of the first—the form was only preserved in the second. This occasioning a mutual distrust, every proposition on one side, however ultimately good for the state, is received coldly by the other—the love of country, of fame, of virtuous popularity, are out of all consideration; and the great object of reach, debate, and assiduity (the constitution having no fundamental balance to preserve its equipoise and temperature) is to aim increasing powers for the different parties.’

Perhaps his conclusion is equally just: it is the opinion that we have often had occasion to offer.

‘I had now finished my survey of the new constitution of France, not through the organs of party pamphlets, or interested people, but from an active and diligent enquiry made by myself upon the spot. I considered it as it stood upon paper, and, as it was afterwards reduced into practice; and the result of all was, that I was now convinced the *Rights of Man*, as laid down in the abstract manner of modern philosophers, are a mere pedantic abuse of elementary principles, which, in the attempt, must loosen the bands of governments, and be destructive of all social freedom.’

CONTROVERSIAL.

Jesus Christ the only God. Being a Defence of that fundamental Doctrine of the Christian Religion, against Arianism and Socinianism. Addressed to the Rev. Dr. Priestley. By J. Bellamy. 8vo. 2s. Sibyl. 1792.

We do not recollect that we have ever met Mr. Bellamy in the field of controversy; yet he wields his weapons with the address of a veteran polemic, and is a champion with whom Dr. Priestley will not, probably, disdain to contend. He attacks his restless, enterprising, antagonist very properly, on the little evidence to be attained even in subjects of natural philosophy, where the subject is exposed to every trial that can be suggested, and traces many of Dr. Priestley’s doctrines to his system of Materialism. With respect to his peculiar system of Unitarianism also, he endeavours to prove historically, that the Ebionites, and the followers of

Paul

Paul of Samosata, were considered, in the earliest ages, as heretics.

The source of this polemic attack is what Dr. Priestley had said, in his 'Letters to the Members of the New Jerusalem Church.' Mr. Bellamy is a follower of Emanuel Swedenborg, and tells us, that he never understood the scriptures till he was taught in the school of this very celebrated mystic—may we add, this visionary enthusiast? He attacks Dr. Priestley on many parts of his Letters, and endeavours to show, that he has either misunderstood or misrepresented the baron's doctrines, particularly respecting the Divine influx, marriages in a future state, and the supposed union of the Divine Essence to a human body. On this last subject, as the remark is short, we shall transcribe Mr. Bellamy's observations.

‘ But before I enter upon it, I must not omit to inform my readers of the injustice you have done the baron, in misrepresenting his writings. P. 32 and 64, you charge it upon him, as an assertion of his own, “ That the divine essence is united to a human body.” He says no such thing; but on the other hand, shows the impossibility of such an union; and what appears illiberal on your side, you know that he denies such an union, at the very moment you are charging him with it; for you give his own words, p. 32, where he says, “ For the human nature cannot be transmuted into the divine essence, neither commixed therewith.” Whenever your pen is again employed, let candour prevail with you never to be guilty of such an impropriety, as it appears to be done with intent to deceive those who are searching for truth, or gain proselytes to your own opinions. Such subterfuges we have no idea of. “ We hesitate not to meet the full force of prejudice, by admitting the imputations of our adversaries in their most obnoxious forms; confident that truth stands in no need of such a shelter, as that to which you have recourse.”

On the whole, we do not think our author equally successful in his particular attempts to convict his antagonist of misrepresentation and error, as he is in his more general opposition; and when, for instance, the baron said that form may be predicated of God, and that form was *virtually* human, the doctor was not, we suspect, very wrong in saying, that Emanuel considered God as having existed in a human form previous to his incarnation. Where is the difference between a form *virtually* the same, and a semblance *formally*?

An Answer to the Second Part of Rights of Man. 8vo. 1s. 6d.
Rivingtons. 1792.

Our author, with great calmness and good sense, follows this inflammatory author in his various wanderings, and detects his numerous

numerous absurdities. It is a picture of cool reason, following and correcting the wild eccentric flights of a madman, who scatters his firebrands, seemingly telling the world that he is but in sport, or correcting inveterate, absurd, prejudices. The author has, however, suffered several censurable passages to escape unnoticed.

An Address from the General Committee of Roman Catholics, to their Protestant Fellow Subjects, and to the Public in general, respecting the Calumnies and Misrepresentations now so industriously circulated with regard to their Principles and Conduct. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1792.

A candid and judicious defence of the Catholics against some unjust aspersions thrown out against them. We trust it will be of service.

S L A V E - T R A D E.

An Address to the Right Rev. the Prelates of England and Wales, on the Subject of the Slave Trade. 8vo. 3d. Parsons. 1792.

The advocates for the abolition of the slave-trade assume every varied form, exhaust every mode of argument, expostulation, and appeal, to carry their cause. Surely they *must* be sincere. This Address contains no new arguments.

Thoughts on Civilization, and the gradual Abolition of Slavery in Africa and the West Indies. 12mo. 2d. Johnson. 1792.

We know not whether the first edition of this little tract occurred in our usual routine. It is enough to say, that this author retails some of the popular arguments against the abolition. His principal position, that the state of society is not sufficiently mature for the abolition of slavery, is a gratuitous one, and by no means established.

P O E T I C A L.

Modern Britons. A Poem. 4to. 2s. 6d. Egertons. 1792.

The supposed degeneracy of mankind has been a favourite topic with the moralising philosopher and querulous satirist almost ever since men began to think and write; and to many minds it affords a gloomy or an ill-natured satisfaction. The position has been commonly taken for granted, but few are more disputable. At present, however, we have neither leisure nor inclination to enter into the question. It is necessary to observe, that our author is a laudator temporis acti; and we should have no objection to his opinions, if he always made so poetical a use of them as in the following lines:

‘ Then liv’d they say, a nymph of aspect bold,
Who fear’d nor scorching sun nor pinching cold;

Her

Her buskin'd leg she bath'd in morning dew,
 And on her bosom bare the bleak winds blew;
 Wild through the British land she took her way,
 And caroll'd, as she went, a rustic lay.
 'They call'd her Freedom; and their frugal feast
 The hinds shar'd, joyous, with the lovely guest.
 Was she alarm'd? Alarm'd throughout the land
 Uprose, with biting falchion in his hand,
 The sturdy swain his fond regard to prove,
 And die, or triumph, with his blooming love.'

He is, however, extremely unequal; frequently obscure and incorrect.

'The ven'son-loving cit, in greasy hall,
 Puffs till he eats the buck up, horns and all:
 And prays (if Heaven he e'er assails with prayer)
 "Groan still our slaves, lest turtle prove too dear."
 Thinks he could bear the horrid thought—to die,
 Yet with some sorrow leaves his rabbit-pye.'

This citizen is evidently copied from Pope's *Helluo*.

'Is there no hope? he cries—then bring the jowl.'

Its inferiority to the original need not be pointed out. As we suspect the author to be a young adventurer in the poetic regions, we hope he will avail himself of our observations. We would not wish him to strengthen the doctrine of a general progressive decline, by an exhibition of declining abilities, and giving us, *poeticè*

Progeniem vitiosiorem —

For it appears that we are soon to expect another attack on modern vices and follies, and would have him, on all accounts, to be as good as his word.

'But half my tale, its better half remains,
 To shine the first fine day in *happier* strains;
 The Muse now flagging rests upon her wing,
 And on new pinions hopes to greet the spring.'

Abelard to Eloisa: a Poem. By Mr. Jerningham. 4to. 1s. 6d.
 Robson. 1792.

We are sorry to learn that, with this poem, Mr. Jerningham means to conclude his poetical labours. In the mild pathetic strain he is often unrivaled; and has, perhaps, never failed, but by feeling too acutely, and expressing his feelings with sometimes a disproportioned pathos. But, in the solemn moment of taking leave, we must not enumerate even trifling errors. This epistle, if we recollect rightly, is not wholly the work of invention. Like its rival, 'Eloisa to Abelard,' by Pope, some of the principal facts

facts are taken from the Letters; like its rival too, it is tender, pathetic, and interesting. The following passage, we mean not to lead to an injurious comparison, is certainly designed as an imitation of one part of Mr. Pope's Epistle, and is not an unsuccessful one.

‘ Ye fallen gates, within whose bound confin'd
 The wretch who enters flings his joys behind!
 Emerging from the dome, ye crowding spires,
 Which sun-robed glitter like ascending fires!
 That funeral spot with many a cypress spread,
 Where shriek the spirits of the guilty dead!
 Yon moping forest, whose extensive sway
 Admits no lucid interval of day,
 No cheering vista with a trail of light
 Flies thro' the heavy gloom of lasting night:
 Ye hermitages, deep immers'd in wood,
 Wash'd by the passing tributary flood,
 Whose easy waves, soft-murm'ring as they roll,
 Lull the strong goadings of the feeling soul:
 Ye tow'ring rocks, to wonder's eye address'd,
 Mishapen piles by terror's hand impress'd!
 Ah, not these scenes magnificently rude
 To virtue's lore have Abelard subdued.’

Perhaps the *ardor* in those which are subjoined is not very consistent with Abelard's situation at the æra of writing the letter.

‘ When late my steps drew near the peopled choir,
 What erring wishes did my heart inspire?
 To the deep mysteries as I advanced,
 Still in thy presence was my soul entranced:
 While, bending to the earth, the choral throng
 Pause, 'ere they usher the emphatic song;
 While kneeling seraphs, trembling as they glow,
 Veil with their radiant wings their bashful brow;
 While the deep organ (as by fear controul'd)
 Its solemn sound like distant thunder roll'd;
 While thick'ning odours dim'd the dread abode,
 And th' altar shudder'd at th' approaching God!—
 'Midst these august, terrific rites unmov'd,
 My guilty thoughts to other altars rov'd:
 In love enchas'd, a dearer image blest
 That living chapel, my impassion'd breast!’

On the whole, however, this is a pleasing performance, and we may add, ‘ though last not least.’

Shrove Tuesday, a Satiric Rhapsody. By Anthony Pasquin, Esq.
 £vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Ridgway. 1791.

Poor man! the fit begins to show itself very early, in incoherent

rent rhapsody and incongruent metaphor. We shall transcribe the first paragraph from the dedication to Isaac Swainson, esq.

‘ Dear Sir,

‘ As the following mock-heroic effusion wars on the side of Humanity, I know not at whose feet I can lay it with so much propriety as thine.—How much, my dear friend, should we rejoice that we have existence in an æra when the frozen seas of Fallacy are thawed by the warm beam of Reason, and, giving way to Demolition, daily separate from their constituent parts, and flit in fragments down the stream of Ruin!—the higher philosophy is triumphing over social imposition—the black cloud of Despotism is burst, and now vanishing before the gales of Philanthropy; its thunder and its lightening injured the blossoms and ramification of the tree of Liberty, but happily could not destroy the trunk, which is immortal.’

As he proceeds, he grows more violent; but, strange to tell! the fit remits in the poetical part; and he talks very coolly and insipidly. We fear, however, much danger, and can hope only that he will be taken proper care of, for the paroxysm may return. The lord-chancellor steal from his works! and the premier bribe him to satirise the national assembly! This is too much either ‘ for Bedlam or the Mint.’

Poems on several Occasions. By the Rev. Joseph Good. 8vo. 3s. Baldwin. 1792.

Mr. Good’s is not a Muse of fire, but she is a good-humoured pleasing companion; without nonsense, ribaldry, or profaneness. To the Poems is prefixed a little Fable, entitled the ‘ Concert of the Birds,’ where the Blackbird is censured because she is inferior to the Nightingale. The modest bird replies, that she is conscious of not meriting such distinguished fame:

‘ Yielding to her superior lays,
I only ask a Blackbird’s praise.’

What is so modestly asked, who can refuse?

The Pardoners Tale. From Chaucer. 8vo. 1s. Cadell. 1792.

The Tale, which Mr. Lipscomb has modernised, is neither so good, nor so bad as some of the other productions of Chaucer: it is less interesting and less licentious. This is, however, a pretty good specimen of the talents which he possesses for his undertaking, that of modernising those Canterbury tales which have not yet experienced the effects of modern polishing, and publishing the whole together.

The Conspiracy of Kings; a Poem. By J. Barlow, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1792.

The bold energetic elegance of our author’s language compensates

penses for some defects; but these defects are not in his political opinions. This, though we have been called the tools of monarchy, we dare assert, for a conspiracy of kings to change a form of government, which a great nation (whether properly or absurdly is of little importance) has chosen, is a Quixotic attempt, superior in folly to any ever made by the Knight of the Woeful Countenance.

Admonitory Epistles, from Harry Homer, to his Brother Peter Pin-dar. 4to. 1s. Williams. 1792.

The author admonishes Peter to avoid some of his more striking errors, such as impropriety, want of decorum, &c. But the medicine is not administered in a pleasing form: we fear it will be rejected with disgust.

The Owl, the Peacock, and the Dove; a Fable, addressed to the Rev. Dr. Tatham and the Right Hon. E. Burke, &c. &c. &c. 4to. 1s. Johnson. 1792.

Pretty doves*!

MORAL:

* * The Owl and the Peacock, the author now ventures
To say mean the High Church, the Doves the Dissenters.'

N O V E L S.

Delineations of the Heart; or, the History of Henry Bennet, a Tragi-Comic-Satyrical Essay, attempted in the Manner of Fielding. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Hookham. 1792.

It is the form of Fielding, and occasionally his semblance will rise for a moment, and the 'eyes are made the fools of the other senses.' But we want his spirit, his wit, that clue which leads to the inmost recesses of the heart, and which he almost exclusively possessed. The heroes will not bear a comparison: the Foundling was gentle, generous, compassionate, and faulty only from the momentary impulse of passion, from passions, drowning in their vortex, reflection. Henry Bennet is the cool, designing, deliberate villain, never right but from accident, or when it assists his vicious pursuits. The moral too is wholly indefensible. The libertine will follow the plans of Bennet in hopes of better fortune; and, in spite of some humour and a few interesting scenes, we are compelled to dismiss this work with reprobation.

It is and it is not, a Novel. By Charlotte Palmer. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Hookham. 1792.

No, my dear,—'It is not a novel:' but be a good girl; do so no more; and we will say nothing about it this time.

Frederica; or, the Memoirs of a Young Lady, a Novel. By a Lady. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Ridgway. 1792.

We cannot approve of this novel: the tale is trite, hackneyed, and

and insipid: the events frequently improbable, and the characters of the common cast. We wish the lady some better employment.

MISCELLANEOUS.

An Essay on Duelling. Written with a View to discountenance this barbarous and disgraceful Practice. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1792.

The author of this Essay makes many just observations on the pernicious practice of duelling; which, with many others who have written on the same subject, he zealously endeavours to discountenance. He thinks that this can only be successfully effected by some law, which will impose upon the practice a durable and disgraceful penalty. Indeed such a law seems the best adapted for counteracting the general principle on which this barbarous and immoral combat is founded.

The Proceedings in Parliament, relative to the Origin and Progress of the War in India. 7s. Boards. Debrett. 1792.

This volume comprehends the debates on Mr. Hippisley's motions in the house of commons, and lord Portchester's in the house of lords: Mr. Dundas's India budget, &c. with an Appendix, containing the late treaties with the Mahrattas and the Nizam; the treaty with Tippo Sultan; extracts from the reports of the secret committee on the affairs of India; copies of all official information from the London Gazettes; with other papers, connected with the subject of the war, and policy of the treaties.

As a Review is not the vehicle of parliamentary debates, or treaties, we have only to inform our readers, that the compiler of the volume is one of those politicians who reprobate the origin of the present war in the East Indies.

Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States of America, with that Constitution prefixed, in which are unfolded the Principles of Free Government, and the superior Advantages of Republicanism demonstrated. By J. Wilson, LL. D. 8vo. 3s. Debrett. 1792.

These Commentaries chiefly consist of the debates of congress on the constitution, recommended by the convention: they display the temper, the candour, and the political knowledge, of the delegates in a very advantageous view.

The Jockey Club, or a Sketch of the Manners of the Age. 8vo. 4s. Symonds. 1792.

An unpleasing specimen of 'the manners of the age,' drawn in the darkest colours. Scarcely any one escapes; and from this indiscriminate censurer we cannot expect any proper character. The greatest warmth of his indignation is, however, directed

CR. R. N. AR. (IV.) April, 1792. K k against

against the P—e of W—s, for we dare not fill up what he has left in obscurity. From this part we shall select a specimen.

‘ The only clue to guide our judgment, in regard to future expectation, must be from the line of conduct hitherto pursued, and from thence what are we to expect? When the mistaken liberality of the nation cheerfully acquiesced in paying a sum of money, granted for the purpose of discharging certain debts, it was under the sanction of an implied engagement, that every useless expence was to be lopped off, the establishment diminished, and a systematic plan of economy adopted. To encourage this hope, pending the business, dust was cast into the eyes of the public. The most flattering assurances were generally held out: race-horses, coach-horses, hounds, &c. &c. were publicly sold; nor could it have been imagined that, in so young a mind, hypocrisy had taken such deep root: but what was the scene which a very few months disclosed? No sooner had parliament voted this money, than decency was set at defiance, public opinion scorned, the turf establishment revived in a more ruinous style than ever, the wide field of dissipation and extravagance enlarged, fresh debts contracted to an enormous amount, which it is neither in his own, or the nation’s power to discharge, and strong doubts entertained that the money voted by parliament was not applied to the purpose for which it was granted. Had a private individual acted in like manner, he would have become the outcast of his family, and the whole world had abandoned him: but in the case before us, where the example is ten thousand times more contagious, such a flagrant breach of faith, such base ingratitude, has hardly received the slightest animadversion.’

‘ If this were so, so were it uttered;’ but, in these dangerous times, rash experiments will be avoided; and, from the late disposition of the house, any future application to supply the means of dissipation will not probably be successful. Our author need not, therefore, be uneasy on this account; but he has so many sources of distress, that even the manly resolution displayed by some of the members on the late application to parliament, an application much more popular, will add but little to his relief.

Advice to the privileged Orders of the several States of Europe, resulting from the Necessity and Propriety of a general Revolution in the Principle of Government. Part I, 8vo. 3s. Johnson. 1792.

We announce the present work only at this time, for we mean to return to it on the publication of the second Part. It will then appear what credit is to be given to the author’s assertion. As we are certain, that it is not actually (actuellement) true, we suspect that it is not prophetically so.

‘ The French revolution is at last not only accomplished, but its

its accomplishment universally acknowledged, beyond contradiction abroad, or the power of retraction at home.'

A Narrative of the Loss of the Grosvenor East Indiaman, which was unfortunately wrecked upon the Coast of Caffraria, on the 4th of August, 1782. Compiled from the Examination of J. Hynes. By Mr. G. Carter. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Murray. 1791.

In our LVITH volume, p. 240, we noticed the first account of the fate of some of the unhappy survivors of this calamity: the greater number perished after incredible hardships, and met death in its most dreadful form. This account differs in many respects from the former, since it contains the adventures of a different party. Unfortunately all subordination was at an end, and there was not a sufficient degree of personal influence to induce the whole number to co-operate in one design; the only method which has occasioned a favourable termination of similar calamities, and at least one of those situations in which the boasted rights and natural equality of man will not apply. The calamity must have happened nearly so far north as the Mosambic Channel, or Hynes must have multiplied the rivers that he passed, and the calamities he endured. There is, on the whole, an air of candour in the Narrative, and Mr. Carter has not weakened the pathos by an affectation of sentimental refinement. It is an interesting story, properly related: we have only to regret, with our author, that want of subordination which, by uniting the powers of all, might have impelled them to an effectual and successful exertion.

A short Account of the Affairs of Ireland during the Years 1783, 4, and part of 5. In a Letter from a Clergyman in Ireland to his Friend in America. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1792.

This Account, though short, is apparently candid and dispassionate. It comprehends the period of the congress, of the attempts to reform the representation, and of the commercial propositions. The author seems the decided friend of Mr. Flood, whom he follows and defends in some apparent tergiversations.

The Grumbler: containing Sixteen Essays, by the late F. Grose, Esq. F. A. S. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Hooper. 1791.

These little Essays are the production of the late facetious Mr. Grose: they were addressed to the editor of a periodical paper, his intimate friend, and probably published by him. The author seems to delight, and to excel, in familiar descriptions of uncommon characters and peculiar pursuits. He is at all times easy, sprightly, and good humoured; and we would recommend his Essays, as a pleasing companion in a post-chaise, or a cheerful entertainer during the bleak easterly winds of spring, when fire is still agreeable. We cannot select a more humorous (or, it is said, a more

faithful) description than that which he gives of himself. We shall prefer, however, the more interesting passages.

‘ To begin with my age—I am somewhat past fifty, and, though of a hale constitution, I have nevertheless received various bodily items and hints, that I am not exactly what I was twenty years ago. Now, as the idea of a decline is by no means an agreeable one, I comfort myself by attributing every ach and pain to the changeable weather of our climate, with which, using the freedom of an Englishman, I am continually finding fault. I am also sometimes led to conceive the ladies do not treat me with their usual attention; but this I charge to the extreme folly of the present times, which I cannot, however, help condemning.

‘ The make of my person is not a little calculated to produce discontent; for though my body contains as many cubic inches of flesh as would form a personal man, these are so partially distributed, that my circumference is nearly double my height; added to this, I have that appendage to my back, which is by vulgar naturalists held as a mark of nobility, entitling the bearer to the appellation of—*My Lord*. The frequent recapitulation of this title makes me dislike to stir abroad on foot; I cannot ride on horseback, and have not a sufficient income to afford a carriage, except on extraordinary occasions.’

‘ Having, from these and various other circumstances, acquired a habit of grumbling on all occasions, and having neither wife, children, nieces, or dependants, the common objects on whom these acrimonious particles are usually discharged, I have by degrees grumbled away all my acquaintances, except one old deaf lady, and thereby at length found my error, and in vain endeavoured to correct it; but, alas! it has taken too deep root in my constitution. This has obliged me to alter my plan, and convert this disposition to the public service, by venting my spleen on the vices and follies of the times. If by accident it should in any instance produce a reformation, I shall have done some good; if not, it will at least, in a scarcity of news, serve to fill up a space in your paper, and save you the trouble of reviving some bloody murder, or fabricating some wonderful sea-monster driven ashore near Deal or Dover.’

Cursory Criticisms on the Edition of Shakespeare published by Edmond Malone. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hookham. 1792.

Is it? No, it cannot be. Yet what other pen drops such gall, what other tongue can utter such abuse? There were some remarks on the *last* edition of Shakespeare, published in 1783, which we noticed in our LVith volume, with a full proportion of complaisance to the Remarker, not without repreending many improper

proper passages, and much exceptionable conduct. We have, therefore, drawn down on ourselves the fullest torrent of the most contemptible abuse, which we share with Mr. Malone and the authors of the *Monthly Review*. But we are well contented with the abuse of such authors, and we can bid him farewell without feeling one spark of resentment. His anger against Mr. Malone is excited by his preferring the quartos to the folios, and the first to the second folio. In defence of his darling folios, he is perfectly Quixotic: we shall imitate one of the knight's antagonists; and, having looked at this redoubtable hero in his terrifying form, quietly return to our 'den,' and sleep, unprovoked to the combat.

The Principles of the French Constitution, translated from the Catechisme de la Constitution of M. Nyon, to which is added, The Principles of Government. 8vo. 2s. Jordan. 1792.

This catechism we have already noticed. The Dialogue, now first added to it, is reprehensible in its substance, and not applicable in the tenour of its argument. The reasoning is exactly such as will captivate the peasant, without the smallest foundation in good sense, when applied to the extensive scale which is the object of the 'Scholar.' It is teaching a child to cry for the moon, because by this means he has obtained a silver medal.

The Life of Mrs. Gooch, written by Herself, dedicated to the Public.
3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Kearsley. 1792.

The present rage for anecdotes, and for information respecting the indiscretions of the great, may render these volumes acceptable, and the lady may attain her purpose.—We can only add, to every reflecting mind and feeling heart, the accounts will be painful; for scarcely of any one, introduced in this volume, are there half as many indiscretions recorded as of herself:

‘We thought so once, but now we know it.’

Considerations on the Causes of the high Price of Grain, and other Articles of Provision, for a Number of Years back; and Propositions for reducing them: with occasional Remarks. By Catharine Phillips. 8vo. 2s. Phillips. 1792.

Mrs. Phillips considers the high rents of land as the principal cause of the dearness of provisions; and the chief remedy proposed is therefore the reduction of those rents. This measure, she observes, will probably not meet with the approbation of the landed-interest: but she reminds all those of this description, that they might bear a reduction in the rents of their estates, if their expences in house-keeping should be reduced at the same time; and this, she endeavours to convince them, would certainly be the case.

Mrs.

Mrs. Phillips may, perhaps, have justly enough pointed out the root of the evil ; but we much fear that her arguments will not prove sufficient to remove it. Let us, however, applaud the goodness of her intention, and enumerate some other particulars to which she adverts.

She observes, that many of the rich consume more than a pound in the day, of the finest flour, in hair powder ; that much of this grain is likewise consumed in the manufacture of starch ; that the increased quantity of malt used for distilling spirits, must tend to advance the price of grain ; and that the great number of dogs kept is a farther addition to the inconvenience.

The proposals which Mrs. Phillips offers for reducing the price of provisions, arise naturally from the causes above assigned of their dearness ; and it is therefore unnecessary to mention them. But we cannot conclude without complimenting her on the pains she has taken to investigate this interesting subject. Her observations, as a female writer, are uncommonly extensive ; and she seems to be well acquainted both with domestic and rural economy.

A Plain Man's Thoughts on the present Price of Sugar, &c. 8vo.
15. Debrett. 1792.

The author of this pamphlet imputes the present high price of sugar to a variety of causes ; some of which, however, seem not likely to operate much within the period of the late extraordinary rise in the price of this commodity. He endeavours to persuade his readers, that a monopoly and speculation in sugar must ever be in a great measure impracticable ; and he argues against a reduction of the drawback on its exportation.

We will not take upon us to decide concerning the justness of his statement, from our own knowledge of the subject ; but there seems to be some reason for suspecting him of a partiality towards the interests of the West India planters and merchants.

An Address to her Royal Highness the Duchess of York, against the Use of Sugar. 8vo. 6d. Darton. 1792.

This author, upon the specious pretext of an abhorrence to the slave-trade, earnestly recommends to the duchess of York the total disuse of sugar in her family ; not doubting that the example of her royal highness would be followed by every person of rank in the kingdom. The petition reminds us of that which was presented to his majesty, soon after his accession, by the wig-makers ; and it will probably meet with similar attention. The Address, however, is neatly printed, upon good paper ; and the author, we may naturally conclude, has taken care to present her royal highness with an elegant copy.

The Evils of Adultery and Prostitution: with an Inquiry into the Causes of their present alarming Increase, and some Means recommended for checking their Progress. 8vo. 2s. Vernor. 1792.

This author treats his subject with great perspicuity and good sense. The first cause which he assigns for the increase of adultery and prostitution, is the example of men of rank and fortune, which insensibly extends its influence over the morals of others. The second cause, he thinks, is to be sought for in the luxury and opulence of the nation. A third cause is the ready circulation, afforded by the public prints, to the instances which happen of those vices. ‘They are told, he observes, as articles of news, and as common occurrences, which excite neither surprise nor indignation. It may be questioned, says he, whether a well-regulated police should admit of the circulation of such debaucheries?’

As a fourth cause of the profligacy of the present age, the author considers that mass of novels and romances, which people of all ranks and ages now so greedily devour; a new species of entertainment, almost totally unknown in former ages. The bad effects of this practice are placed in a clear point of view, and strongly supported by observation; but we shall proceed to mention the means proposed for checking the progress of adultery and prostitution. These are, to discourage celibacy, and encourage marriage; a more regular and severe police directed against all houses of ill fame; and a total change in the system of modern female education.

On the Prevention of Crimes, and on the Advantages of solitary Imprisonment. By J. Brewster, A.M. 8vo. 1s. Clarke. 1792.

This judicious and humane author’s works we have formerly had occasion to commend. What he observes respecting the institutions calculated to prevent crimes, we fully approve. Solitary imprisonment is a subject that requires a fuller discussion than he has given, and a more full examination than we have yet been able to bestow. We have many doubts of its propriety.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

GENTLEMEN,

Feb. 10, 1792.

AS I look on the inclosed Paper to be a sort of *Literary Curiosity*, I take the liberty of sending it to you. And should you judge it proper to have a place in your useful work, I hope to see it in an English dress—I understand it is a French translation of a definition, or rather a distinction, made by the prince Daschkard, between a simply honest man, and a virtuous man, for the use of the Russian Dictionary, now publishing at Petersburg. I am, Gentlemen, your humble servant.

We

We are much obliged to our friendly correspondent, and we think the inclosed paper truly curious: we have consequently subjoined a translation of it.

‘HE deserves the name of a virtuous man, who, having subdued his passions, is guided by justice. This first principle of virtue induces him to prefer truth to every thing, and to fulfil every duty and obligation, even when opposed by his interests or personal enjoyments. The love of his country excites not only a zealous activity, but renders him ready and able, in cases of necessity, to make the greatest sacrifices: virtue gives him firmness and courage, and he becomes capable of brilliant actions. Not contented with barely doing his duty like others, he eagerly sacrifices his personal interests, to render his country the most distinguished services. In private life, he is equally attentive to his duty, and answers the claims of relationship and friendship with the greatest exactness. Every kindred virtue, prescribed by the law of nature, by religion, or the laws of his country, are familiar to him: gratitude, sacred friendship, filial and paternal duties, with the other moral virtues, are the feelings which warm and animate his soul. Humanity and candour, in judging of human failings, unite him with peace and good humour to mankind; nor can the tranquillity of his soul be troubled but by vice, for the strength of his judgment enables him to survey every object in its proper view: the passions have no influence on him.

‘The *honest* man does his duty. The *virtuous* man improves what honesty dictates. Executing with a zeal, more considerable, more ardent, with greater activity and rapidity, he hurries on to voluntary services, and thinks these a sufficient recompence.

‘The *honest* man does no harm. The *virtuous* man; so far from doing harm, has always in his view the most elevated and heroic actions: these are his models.

‘Unshaken in his principles, founded on virtue, he follows the path of justice, unmoved by envy or human frailty: the consoling testimony of his conscience renders him tranquil and happy, independent of authority or accidents. In a word, the virtuous man distinguishes himself as much by an elevated soul as by an enlightened genius. This last quality is so much the more essential, as without understanding it is often difficult to discover the secret and obscure paths of justice, which is the basis of every virtue.’

WE are sorry that we cannot with propriety engage in the private correspondence requested. It will be sufficiently private to say, in this place, that the subject shall be examined with particular care. The reviewer is conscious of no error. He is certain that none was designed.



A P P E N D I X
TO THE
FOURTH VOLUME
OF THE
NEW ARRANGEMENT
OF THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*La Prusse Littéraire sous Frederic II. pour servir de Continuation
à l'Essai sur la Vie & le Règne de ce Roi. Par M. l'Abbe
Denina. 3 Toms. 8vo. Roffman, Berlin.*

LITERARY history is the creation of our own period, and contains a picture of the mind in one region, its various exertions in the different acquisitions, either purely intellectual, or more practical and manual. The late king of Prussia did not strike the spark, but he cherished the almost imperceptible fire, raised the flame, and extended its general warmth, its animating heat. The sands of Brandenburg became the cradles in which genius sometimes began to flourish, but more often the conservatory in which the genius of other countries expanded with fresh vigour. Our present author does not confine himself to either class, nor to any one art; merit of every kind, connected with Prussia, and the connections are sometimes a little remote, is his subject. His articles consequently amount to near 1200, and he scruples not to assert that there are at present, in the protestant provinces of Germany, more writers than in the whole kingdom of France. He speaks, however, of literary men who were never authors, and of authors who have been but a short time in Prussia; though he confines himself also to the forty-six years of Frederic's reign, yet those who at his accession were old, and others who at his death had just begun their literary career, are equally the subjects of his remarks, and his history consequently includes more than an age. In general, the articles are neither crowded with dates, and circum-

stances only personally important, nor with very extensive critical reflections. The number of authors has extended it to three octavos.

‘ Of one thing, he observes, I have scarcely any doubt: many of the Germans will think that I have said too little of them; foreigners that my details are too extensive. But let me assure the former that, however concise my accounts may appear to them, I have said more than is known in Italy, in France, in Spain, and perhaps even in England. To the latter I would suggest, that three or four of the 1200 authors and artists of whom I speak, would have filled all my volumes, if I had only detailed what themselves or their disciples have written of them; and one of the six classes of authors to which my work extends, might have filled twice as many sheets.’ The Life of Busching, for instance, written at the age of sixty-five by himself, with a very concise account of his works, equals in extent two of these volumes; and the Life of Wolff by Ludwig, composed seventeen years before he ceased to write, is equally copious. Our author intended to have added a fourth volume, but he has abandoned this plan, and we find only a Supplement annexed to the third.

The Introduction contains a general view of literature in Prussia. The abbe begins with detailing the first progress of letters and arts in the states which at present compose the Prussian monarchy, till the year 1530. The dawn of literature seems to have been at the accession of the House of Hohenzollern, of which the ancestor of the present family was a younger brother; and for two centuries before, though the crusaders illuminated in some degree the minds of the people, and the establishment of the Teutonic order gave some little expansion to the mental exertions, there scarcely exists a single chronicle which proves that the priests and monks could write or read. The Reformation was, in every view, favourable to literature and to science; and the disputes which this great event produced, seemed, in our author’s opinion, to have led to the vast system of Leibnitz, a philosopher who divides, with Newton, the credit of the deepest penetration and the soundest judgment which ever adorned mankind. Under the great elector, and in the reign of the first king of Prussia, the progress was rapid; and though checked awhile by the brutality of Frederic-William, the delay was compensated by the auspicious influence of Frederic II. This wonderful man, born alternately to raise our admiration of the power of genius, and to depress human pride, by showing how gross the errors were into which minds of superior excellence could fall, gave a new impulse to every kind of mental activity, and was the great patron of literature for near half a century, though he turned the course of science into some erroneous channels.

The new system of education, female instruction, foreign alliances, and the liberty of the press, contributed to extend the literary views of the Prussians, and add to their information. The changes made in the course of studies, and in the use of languages, had their influence; and the abbe explains at some length the progress of national literature, and the German language.

The author next adverts to the state of each science in different periods, and points out the gradual progress. To Wolff the abbé attributes much of the scepticism which, under the auspices and guidance of the late Frédéric, gained so stable a foundation. That author had connected his moral and philosophical system without attending to the prophets and the fathers; what, therefore, their master had overlooked, the scholars were not very attentive to, and the German divines became rather metaphysicians than theologists. But every excess carries with it its peculiar remedy; and as in the present state of theology in England, where the unitarians are balanced, perhaps more than balanced, by the methodists, so in Prussia the indecision of the greater number introduced a stricter sect, denominatated indiscriminately Pietists, the illuminated, free-masons, &c. who are supposed to be secretly catholics, but whom we should rather suspect to be Moravians. They must 'strive for the mastery' among themselves.

Jurisprudence flourishes in Germany like a tree in its favourite and native soil. Its foliage is luxuriant, and its influence is extensive. The foundation is the civil law. Medicine owes much of its fame to the university at Halle, where Hoffmann and Stahl flourished. Since that period, other universities have eclipsed the Prussian by their splendor; yet our own annals have often borne a cheerful testimony to the merits of Walter, Selle, Meckel, Eller, Gleditsch, and Meyer; neither should their predecessors Pott and Margraaf be forgotten.

In works of imagination, poetry, the drama, and music, the Prussians, under Frédéric, have stepped far beyond their ancestors in the time of the great elector. But these writings are sufficiently known: one passage we are tempted to translate, 'However interesting, well-written, or pleasing, the Sorrows of Werter, Guilemina, and Sophia, may appear, they are inconsiderable in comparison of the works of other nations. London and Paris furnish more in six weeks than Germany in six years. The English, before they traversed the globe with their fleets, and collected in their island the productions of the two worlds, had a theatre, but no romances. It is probable that, if the Germans had more opportunities of travelling and extending their knowledge, they would be as rich in this department of literature as they are already in works of erudition.'

On the German language, as a poetical and a dramatic one, the abbé's remarks are much too uncivil and partial.

The progress of history and geography is next considered. But history was in the hands of Frederic, and no one dared to rival the man who had 200,000 men under his command. In geography, the names of Hubner and Busching are alone conspicuous; and in this country the fame of either is not very considerable. To the former, indeed, we must allow the merit of vast and extensive research; but we must add, that his work is heavy, ill-arranged, unpleasing, and uninteresting. In the military art, Frederic also bore no brother near his throne; and among the numerous generals in the Prussian service, we can only distinguish three or four who have written on their profession. Frederic's secret military instructions were betrayed either by accident or by treachery, and he was opposed in war by armies trained by his own methods.

The Prussian preachers are not entitled to considerable applause; but our author rescues some names from oblivion, apparently with justice. In translations, the Germans have been forward and generally able: in works of cool discussion and grave reflection they have excelled. Of typography they are said to have been the inventors. Let us transcribe a note on this subject from our author:

‘The count Torre Rezzonico, esteemed by all the learned in Europe for his extensive knowledge and accurate taste in the fine arts, found at Lyons among the books which a merchant had bequeathed to the library of a convent, plates with names and whole words, engraved by a Nuremberger, anterior to the year 1380. M. de Rezzonico has given us reason to hope that he will publish his reflections on this subject.’ If, however, Germany claims the first invention of printing, she has been greatly excelled by other nations. The continued use of the old Gothic characters, the badness of the paper, and imperfection of the types, occasion some enquiries into the causes and reasons of this predilection, and such imperfections: each is severely reprobated. Few beautiful editions are the production of Germans: the abbe's work is, however, printed very neatly, but the type and the paper are evidently not German.

The fine arts, architecture, painting, and engraving, did not greatly flourish in Prussia; and, in general, those arts in which Frederic excelled, have failed more than the others. It is rivalry and competition which give them force, vigour, and activity; and to the king no one would be a rival. Frederic also was a great œconomist. He would not pension students in foreign countries; and having exhausted his models on paper, without greatly adding to his own taste, his later works were often defective. Casting statues is still understood, and a late

one of Catherine II. was executed at Berlin: designs in miniature, as subservient to the porcelain manufacture, were also successfully studied.

The work itself is an alphabetical collection of lives of different authors, either born in, or remotely connected with, Prussia. Many of these are unheard of, or unknown to this country, and it is only in our power to select a specimen or two of the most interesting accounts. We shall first choose that of the present czarina, whom we should scarcely have expected among a set of German literati.

‘Catherine II. empress of Russia, born at Stettin, in 1729. It may be considered among the many singular circumstances in the life of Frédéric, that this great princess, whose reign has been as brilliant as his own, should have drawn her first breath in the dominions of his father. She was also the only sovereign admitted into the academy of which he was the chief, and in some measure the colleague. We shall only speak of her here as her history is connected with our work. Her father, Christian-Augustus, prince of Anhalt-Zerbst, had been educated at Berlin under Frédéric I. in a college of princes and nobles, the original of the ‘academy of nobles,’ or the ‘military school,’ founded by Frédéric II. in 1764. The prince of Zerbst served in the Prussian army, when he left the college, and soon after married a princess of Holstein, a relation of Elizabeth-Sophia, third wife of the duke of Brunswick. The marriage was celebrated at Feckeln, a villa of the dukes of Brunswick. Duke Ferdinand, to whom the house at present belongs, preserves the chamber where the ceremony was performed with a sort of veneration. The prince was governor of Stettin when his wife was delivered of Sophia-Augustina-Frederica, who afterwards assumed the name of Catherine. This august empress always showed a considerable affection for the place of her birth, and has given some solid proofs of her attachment. She seems to have an equal regard for Brunswick, where she was educated with the duchess who had negotiated the marriage of her mother. It was not at that time the custom in Germany to allow instructors for the princesses: the ladies who attended them taught them what was thought proper they should learn. A countess Gioannini, a Silesian, of an Italian family, had the greatest share in the early instruction of the young princess of Zerbst; and the young ladies of the families of the French refugees taught her the language of their country. Some clergymen of the Lutheran persuasion were employed to instruct her in the principles of their religion; and this did not prevent the Lutherans from afterwards defending her adoption of the Greek religion, when she was married to the grand duke. In consequence of this change, she must have become equally tolerant to the three principal Christian

sects, for she must have known that there was only a slight variation between the Lutheran and the Greek faith, and still less between the latter and the Roman Catholic religion. On the other hand, born in a country where the reformed religion was that of the sovereigns, she could not consider Calvinists as in a state of utter reprobation. In fact, when she mounted the throne, she equalled Frédéric in tolerance, though for different reasons.

But what is more to our purpose, she drew up with her own hand the plan of the code which Russia is still in expectation of, and which the first Peter had not time to attempt. The august author who could compose the moral tale of Chlore Czarewitz, might surely write the history of her empire, or at least of her reign, as Frédéric has written that of his ancestors and the history of his wars. If the German literature should ever contend with the French for the extent of empire, it is to Catherine that Germany will be indebted for victory, should she obtain it. Under her reign, a crowd of German literati have been employed, and written books in Russia. The correspondence of Frédéric and Catherine is spoken of, and will be celebrated among the most remarkable works in that department; and Catherine will be commended for having paid that respect to her country which Frédéric refused. For, though Catherine had literary correspondents in Paris as well as Frédéric, the learned Germans, if we except the Swiss only, have not received such attention from the late king of Prussia, as some of them have from the empress of Russia.'

We shall add some other remarks relating to the czarina from the Supplement. 'Catherine II. has not only composed the works already mentioned, and the 'Library for the Great Dukes Alexander and Constantine,' but has published in 1786, 7, many other works, written with much spirit and taste, particularly Obadiah, an oriental Tale, and a comedy entitled the Siberian Schaman. A letter from her to the prince de Ligne has lately appeared, written in a tone of pleasantry which would have done honour to Frédéric II. This great and fortunate princess writes, with the same ease and elegance, German, French, and Russian.'

We shall add no reflections on our author's opinions, or his religious remarks; but proceed to select another article, which we have chosen as a specimen of his pleasing and agreeable manner. We may add, that his French is of the modern kind, nervous, energetic, and approaching to the English idiom. A translator who could wish to give an English version of the volumes before us, would have little trouble, and be in little danger of offending by foreign idioms, even though his version should be literal.

'Jani (Christian David), born at Glauche in the neighbourhood

nood of Halle, educated in the same village; first appointed co-director of one of the schools, and afterwards rector of the great school at Isleben, dependent on the church of this city: a town famous for giving birth to Martin Luther, and for the mines of copper in its neighbourhood. The edition of the first part of the Odes of Horace has established the reputation of the rector Jani; but it is doubted whether he will ever finish this work: the enthusiasm which he felt for the pretended Ossian seems to have seduced him from the ancient poets and the Latin language. He translated, however, the *Aeneid* of Virgil, after publishing some philosophical works from the English, and the Memoirs of the Pere Niceton from the French. He gave also some apologetical works on the literary establishments of Halle. The rector of Eisleben-school has, at the age of 40, a third wife, having lost the two former. He is not, therefore, of the opinion of other rectors, who think that, to educate properly the children of others, the rector should have none of his own. But constitution may have some influence on the systems in these respects.'

We shall conclude this article, but we mean to resume the work, by an account of professor Kant. His new system, of which the abbé takes no notice, is becoming fashionable, and is likely to change the state of philosophy and metaphysics in Germany. As we may at some future time give an account of it, this short life of the author will be a suitable introduction.

'Kant (Emanuel), professor of philosophy in the university of Konigsberg, where he was born in 1724, is the most celebrated metaphysician in Germany, perhaps in Europe. He is not less of a philosopher in his life and manners than in his discoveries in the most abstruse points of philosophy. His parents left him by no means a competence, and he supported himself by private lectures. The place of second librarian of Konigsberg scarcely brought him enough to pay the rent of two chambers; and he was almost without necessaries when he lost an old friend, an English merchant, with whom he usually dined. Yet it was impossible to draw him from Konigsberg to place him in any other situation: his love for his country kept him in Prussia, and he is one of the few authors who have never left their native places. Indeed his peculiar studies require less travelling to extend and to perfect them than any other. His first work was 'Thoughts on the Estimation of living Forces,' printed in 1746, and it proves that this doctrine was fashionable in the centre of Germany, as well as at Bologna in the centre of Italy; for F. M. Zanotti wrote on this subject in the same year. Ten years elapsed before Kant appeared again as an author. In 1755 he published his 'Universal History and Theory of the Heavens, according to the Principles of Newton.' The English merchant, his friend and host, engaged him probably to

compose this work. About a year afterwards, he published his History of the most remarkable Earthquakes, but he was still devoted to metaphysics, and united them to philosophy. His first steps in this line were in two Latin works, published in 1755 and 1756, 'on the Principles of Human Knowledge.' Some years afterwards, he gave a Demonstration of the fictitious Subtlety of the four Figures of a Syllogism; and after some other works, published one entitled 'The only possible Basis on which the Demonstration of the Existence of a God can be founded.' In 1762 he divided the prize proposed by the academy of Berlin with the Jew Mendelsohm, 'on the Evidence to be attained in Metaphysical Sciences.'—This essay did him great honour, and from this period M. Kant was considered as a classical author in speculative philosophy. His success contributed probably to his attaining the chair of ordinary professor of philosophy in 1770, when he was forty-six years old. From that period, and indeed from 1762, he has not passed a single year without adding to his reputation by some new work. There is not an university in Germany where some professor does not boast of being a disciple of, or a commentator on, Kant. Neither Mallebranche in France, nor Locke in England, ever enjoyed so much reputation in their lives, for even the Jews follow his principles in explaining the most difficult passages in the Talmud. It is indeed true, that those who profess his philosophy do not understand it, but with great labour, since it is so intricate and deep. One of his works is entitled 'The Reveries of a spiritual Traveller explained by the Reveries of Metaphysics.' He writes, however, occasionally for the world at large, and furnishes the articles to the Konigsberg Gazette and to the Berlin Journal, published by Giedike and Biester.'

We must mention, that those who read the abbe Denina's work, ought to be on their guard in one respect. The titles of the works are universally in French, though many of these are in the German language, and some in the Latin; but the original language is in no instance pointed out, and readers not acquainted with the German may, without this notice, be deceived, by ordering volumes which they will not understand.

*Nicolai Josephi Jacquin Collectanea ad Botanicam Chemicam,
& Historiam Naturalem Spectantia. 3 Vols. Quart. maxim.
Vindobonæ 1787—1789. Kraus.*

OF this splendid work we delayed giving any account till we had seen the progressive volumes appear with unimpaired splendor, executed with the same unwearied attention. The distant spot in which they are published prevents us from receiving

ceiving them in proper time: the third volume has only reached this country very lately. But it is necessary to give the history of the publication.

In the year 1778 M. Jacquin published the first volume of *Miscellanea Austriaca*, in which he purposed to collect different essays relating to botany, mineralogy, chemistry, zoology, and every other branch of natural history, which might appear of importance to the progress of each of these sciences, written either by himself or friends, including the inaugural dissertations published in the Austrian dominions on the various parts of his very extensive plan. The second volume appeared in 1781, and each was adorned with plates, chiefly coloured, executed with singular beauty and accuracy. But the size of these volumes, a small quarto, was not sufficient to admit of large plates, without folding, a circumstance which often injured their beauty; so that, in the continuation of the work, it was enlarged, and the title changed to *Collectanea*: in other respects, the object and the execution were little varied. M. Jacquin probably intended that the paper in the continuation should have been better, because, among the disadvantages of the former work, he mentions 'vilior charta': unfortunately, however, in the copies which now lie before us, the paper on which the *Collectanea* is printed is by much the worst. Of the former publication, at this distance, we cannot with propriety give any account; of this continuation, sometimes even quoted by the author himself, as the third, fourth, and fifth volumes of the *Miscellanea*, we shall give a cursory description, for the minute botanical and mineralogical details would be very uninteresting in an analysis.

The first dissertation by J. X. Wulfen, is a continuation of a former essay on the sparry ore of lead from Carinthia. Fifty-seven species were before described, and thirty-four are now added.

The second essay is by M. Jacquin, on the *valeriana celtica*, the *nardus celtica* of Dioscorides and Bauhine. The description and the figure, which is a very beautiful coloured one, were supplied by M. Wulfen. Such a plant as Clusius has exhibited, and Scopoli described, with verticulated and subverticulated peduncles, M. Wulfen observes that he has never seen; for the valerian 'seems to affect peduncles exactly opposite.' He never saw it in the Alps of Carniola, nor the highest mountains of Carathia, and it generally occurred in those hills which consisted of a compound rock, where there was no lime-stone. Of those who have given pictures of it, few, he thinks, have examined it in a perfect state. In the figure of Mathiolus, for instance, the root appears dried and compressed,

the

the stem is an ideal figure : the leaves and branches are well expressed. Clusius has faithfully represented the habit of the plant, and his plate is copied by Gerard, inverted by Bauhine and Chabréus. Camerarius's plate is a good one, taken probably from Gesner, and repeated by Morison. Lobelius drew it in an inverted position, and represented its lateral peduncles with single flowers : Tabernæmontanus loaded it with three stalks, Flukenet's plate is not very accurate. The plant has been hitherto found exclusively on high mountains.

When chemically examined, its odour and taste came over in distilled water ; but the taste was disagreeably bitter. Distilled by itself, besides the usual products of water, *spiritus rector* and *empyreumatic* oil, an acid fluid was found in the retort. From four ounces of the root six grains of fixed vegetable alkali, with two drachms twenty-five grains of calcareous earth, were procured : from the same quantity six drachms of spirituous extract were obtained. It is used for different purposes ; carried to Egypt by the Syrian merchants to lay on the baths ; in Austria collected to drive off insects, or as a fumigation ; but the odour is very disagreeable, and occasions violent head-achs. The Greek merchants at the court of Vienna pay, it is said, two or three millions of florins annually, for the exclusive privilege of sending this plant to Turkey. It is collected in large quantities from the Carynthian and Styrian Alps, and sent in boats down the Danube. As the smell is more powerful than that of the valerian, Haller thinks it will be more useful for those diseases in which valerian is usually found serviceable. Geoffroy thinks it more advantageous as a diuretic, tonic, and carminative than the *spica indica*. Linnæus supposes it to be an anti-spasmodic, diuretic, and anthelmintic. It undoubtedly deserves more attention than has been paid to it. Our author thinks that it cannot be the *saliunca* of Virgil (Eclog. v. 17.), because compared with the rose-bush. But he did not look at Virgil, for it is contrasted ; and from the description of Pliny (lib. xxi. cap. 7.) we think it probably the same.

Botanical observations, continued from the *Miscellan. Austriac.* vol. ii. follow, but these will admit of no abridgement, and even to copy the names would lead us too far. Ninety-eight species are either described or illustrated.

M. Scherer's observations and experiments, on the green matter on the surface of the Caroline and Tœpliz waters, deserve particular attention. In each of these waters a gelatinous vesicular vegetable substance is found, of a brilliant green colour, and a singular texture : at times it is of a dirty green, brown, and even black. It was formerly called a vitriolic efflorescence ; but Springfield, in the *Berlin Transactions* (1752), first discovered

vered it to be a fungus, and called it *tremella thermalis*. The brown or black matter is merely filamentous, and called by Springfield *tremella filamentosa*, while the *thermalis* consists of filaments, hollow tubes containing air, which expands by the heat of the sun, vesicular bodies, and minute green transparent granules. On a more particular examination, he found all the filaments moveable; though, when taken out of the water, they seemed to revive and move again, only after an interval of three or four days; but at the same time he discovered in the water various species of infusory animals. After fifteen days, when the water was renewed, the filaments moved vigorously, but they had then lost the elegant green, and soon degenerated into a gelatinous putrid mass, and all the filaments had lost their motion, except a few, which irritated by a very gentle stimulus by the flame of a candle, showed signs of life. The great question therefore is whether the motion may not have been owing to the animalcula infusoria. It seems probable that it was so; yet, at the same time, the *tremella* was put into cold water, and, if it had any natural irritability, would probably lose it in this situation. Subsequent experiments seem to throw some light on the difficulty.

The smallest quantity of acids, alkalis, solution of vitriols, sugar, neutral salts, and fixed air in water, added to the mass, drove the filaments and their attending animals to the other side. The minute portion of nitrous acid and the other fluids, excepting only the solution of sugar and fixed air, agitated the filaments with a kind of convulsive motion, and soon deprived the whole mass of life. The mephitic water was the least noxious, the fixed vegetable alkali and nitrous acid the most injurious. In another experiment, the motion began the second day; the matter shrank on being touched, and renewed the parts that were cut away. In short, our author concludes this green matter to be of an animal nature, and seems to style it a congeries of polypi. To this conclusion we can only offer one objection, that it is by no means certain, from the experiments before us, that the appearance of vitality is not communicated to the plant by the adventitious animals. This subject ought to be farther elucidated. Our author describes the little animals discovered, without adverting to the distinction we have hinted. The air procured from this substance was dephlogisticated in sun-shine, and less pure by night; some proof of a vegetable nature, though, unlike vegetables, it did not injure the air exposed to it in the dark; and, from a chemical analysis, a slight smell of volatile alkali was perceived, and not the minutest portion of fixed alkali. The oil was very black and empyreumatic.

Wulfen's continuation of the rarer plants of Carinthia follows;

low; but his descriptions afford nothing that we can extract with propriety. Eighty plants are described, and frequently engraved, with the usual brilliancy and elegance which distinguish the plates of this volume. The last article of the first volume is entitled 'Some Animadversions on the Fasciculi of Austrian Plants, published by Hen. J. N. Crantz.' The author, M. Jacquin, endeavours to reconcile some apparent contradictions, and corrects some minute errors in that publication.

The second volume is chiefly botanical. The first essay, by M. Haenke, contains 'Botanical Observations made in Bohemia, Austria, Carynthia, the Tyrol, Styria, and Hungary.' In this untrodden path our author has discovered much novelty, and some plants of curiosity; but his observations are purely botanical, and will be uninteresting to general readers.

M. Jacquin, in the next essay, describes the *phalæna vitifana*. It is an animal very destructive to vines and the grapes. The eggs are laid when the buds begin to shoot (in the year 1788, it was about the 12th of May), and the larvæ weave their web round the gemmæ: on the 5th of June, they were, as usual, metamorphosed to pupæ; and, from the 7th to the 25th of July, the *phalænæ* came out, which are described and delineated. As there was a vacant space on the plate, M. Jacquin has added a species of *tenthredo*, which he found on the *prunus padus* Lin.

In the third article M. Jacquin describes some very rare plants, taken from dried specimens, chiefly from America and the West India islands; and M. Wulffen adds his continuation of the rarer plants of Carynthia. Seventy species, including many curious lichens, are described in this essay. Some of these are, as usual, delineated.

Dr. Scherer, in the 'Animadversiones Quædam circa Eudometriam,' endeavours to defend the eudiometer as a test of impure air. Dr. Achard has observed, that air, procured by the detonation of equal parts of nitre and filings of iron, and secured by closing the vessel immediately after the detonation, was diminished by nitrous air, but was still injurious to animals. To support the credit of the instrument, our author made different experiments, but with no clear decided views, and with no remarkable success. He procured air in different ways which lessened nitrous air, supported flame, and yet was fatal to animals: we know very well its nature; but, as in his opinion the injury from respiring air is not owing to its phlogiston, it ought not to lessen the credit of the eudiometer. We need scarcely stay to refute ideas so crude and so inaccurate.

The next essay is by M. Jacquin, and entitled *sideroxylum*. This term Herman and Plukenet have applied to many trees in Africa

Africa and America, whose wood was extremely hard, and indeed it is only a translation of the common appellation, iron-wood. The genus, as established by Linnæus, is not correct, and our author thinks he has discovered some of the synonyms to be doubtful. As Linnæus therefore probably had never seen any species in a living state, and seemed not to have had an accurate idea of the genus, M. Jacquin endeavours to correct his errors. The numerous difficulties in the way of forming a correct generic character, prevent him from attempting it at this time, but he has endeavoured to lay the foundation, by describing four species of *sideroxylon* more correctly than before. The *sideroxylon melanopheum* and *fætidissimum* he had already noticed, and he now adds the *sideroxylon* mite, *inerme* & *tenax*, from Linnæus: the *sideroxylon masticodendron* (the mastic tree) from Catesby. It is his *cornus, foliis laurinis, fructu majore luteo.*

The *cimex teucrii* is a new species of bug, denominated from the plant (*teucrium supinum*), on which the animal is found. It is very minute, and its cell very small to defend it from rain, and a red ant its most formidable enemy. The whole life of this insignificant being does not extend beyond a month.

M. Jacquin's continuation of the botanical observations follows. This essay, which concludes the volume, contains 107 plants.

The third volume is also still more exclusively botanical. M. Wulfen's continuation of the rarer plants of Carinthia is the first article. It contains 101 plants, well described and beautifully engraved: many curious lichens are among the number. Jacquin's continuation of the 'Observationes Botanicæ' follow, from No. 308 to 400. The same author's 'Description of the rarer Plants from dried Specimens,' is added. As M. Swartz's 'Nova Genera & Species' were published at the same time as our author's volume, he has been informed, he tells us, 'from England,' that they have sometimes given different names to the same plant. He admits his *asplenium anthriscifolium* to be the *asplenium pumilum* of Swartz; his own *acrostichum longifolium*, to be his *acrostichum latifolium*; the *chionanthus caribæa* of Jacquin to be the *chionanthus compacta* of Swartz. That his *eugenia periplocæfolia* & *paniculata* are the *myrtus splendens* & *acris b.* of Swartz, he leaves to be determined by that botanist, when he has remarked, that in each the corolla is constantly tetrapetalous, the berry unilocular, with a single seed, circumstances inconsistent with the genus *myrtus*.

M. Host's *Entomologica* contains a description of the *scarabæus sacer*, *scarabæus exscutellatus* of Linnæus; *curculio mutabilis*, *cardiniger* & *corruptor*; *elater mordelloides*; *carabus pilosus*;

pilosus; and *tipula paradoxa*, found in the tan of the hot-house, in the botanical garden at Vienna. The *carabæus* corruptor is a most fatal enemy to vines, and destroyed by gardeners with the most anxious care, and the most unwearied diligence.

The last essay is on the generic characters of the *convolvulus* and *ipomæa*. The genera have been often confounded, and are not yet accurately fixed. M. Jacquin proposes the form of the stigma for the generic character, and to fix that of the *convolvulus*, ‘*stigma bipartitum in lacinias lineares*,’ while the stigma of the *ipomæa* is consequently ‘*capitatum & papillosum*;’ to which ‘*lobatum*’ may be added. The other parts of the plants resemble each other so nearly, that it is difficult to fix on a distinguishing mark; and in this way many of the *convolvuli* will be transferred to the genus of *ipomæa*. The change seems a little too rash and violent.

Leçons d'une Gouvernante à ses Eleves, ou Fragmens d'un Journal qui a été fait pour l'Education des Enfans de Monsieur d'Orléans. Par Madame de Sillery Brulart, Gouvernante de Mademoiselle d'Orléans. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris, 1791.

IN this singular work the celebrated countess de Genlis descends from theory to practice, and presents us with a journal of the real incidents which occurred in her education of the children of the house of Orleans, three boys and a girl. We have perused it with some pleasure, if we except that large part of the second volume which is occupied with paltry disputes between madame de Genlis, now Sillery-Brulart, and the under-governors, a part which serves not one purpose of amusement or instruction, and which must have been printed during the sleep of judgment and of imagination.

In her preface madame Brulart informs us that she has lodged the original Journal, whence the first volume is extracted, in the hands of a notary, M. Gabion, No. 39, Rue de Richelieu, who will shew it to any teachers of youth who may be desirous of comparing the edition with the original. Our authoress then vindicates herself in a manner which testifies her to be a warm friend of the French revolution against the charges which her enemies, the enemies of that event, have raised against her conduct in the education of these illustrious children. Her defence in this and other parts of the work is ample and satisfactory. She was reproached with teaching her disciples the maxims that led to the revolution, with inspiring M. de Chartres with the desire of being admitted to the society of friends of the constitution; with intilling into their tender minds too great attachment to herself, and with diminishing the influence

influence of their mother, a daughter of the house of Penthièvre, an *aristocrate*, and since separated from her husband. The preface concludes thus: 'if for twelve years I have been entirely devoted to my disciples, if I have given them intelligence, just ideas, excellent principles, if the fruit of these lessons has been to attach them extremely to their governess, they are sensible and grateful, they really love virtue; this is what was my duty to prove. I flatter myself besides that this work will not be without use to teachers and fathers of families. I dare to believe that there is no child who can read it without interest and improvement, especially when he thinks that it is not a work of imagination. The second volume, now in the press, and which will appear in a fortnight, will offer more variety and more engaging details, but that volume which contains all the secrets of education is not fit for children, and can only be useful to teachers.'

Of the lessons which are addressed to the children who regularly read the *Journal*, we shall present some laudable specimens.

'If on the high-way far from succour you find any person much hurt, although you had no concern in the accident, humanity imposes it as a duty upon you to stop and use means of assistance. And likewise, if in the high-way you find a carriage overturned, you should send your servants to offer help: if the accident have happened to people of good appearance, though unknown to you, you should offer them places in your carriage; much more if known to you, &c.'

'M. de Chartres has performed an action which I write with delight. Without any insinuation or instruction, and instigated only by his own heart, he privately gave three days ago all his money to deliver a prisoner: and has mentioned this affair to none. Next day he was told that a most unfortunate man had occasion for immediate assistance. As he had no more money he requested me to desire M. le Brun to give him some, and I consented: he applied to M. le Brun, who not knowing how he had used his money, did not approve his not applying his pocket-money to this purpose. Monsigneur did not explain his reason, and it was not till three days after that he informed me of all, well thinking that as he confesses his faults to me, so he may reveal his good actions as the only recompence with which he can repay my cares: he told me the fact simply, and in few words. I did not endeavour to conceal from him the impression which this recital made upon me: he saw my tears flow, he mingled his, with an expression of sensibility, the remembrance of which still affects me, and said to me the most amiable and engaging words. Dear child, I shall never forget that evening.'

Madame

Madame Brulart, in the just idea that rewards have more effect upon children than punishments, instituted little prizes, such as writing-boxes, &c. to be given to the child who, during three months, excelled in goodness and sweetness of temper, or in application.

‘I have discovered that M. de Montpensier (the second son, as the count de Beaujolois is the third) has taken care for many months of a poor woman, and with an attention, a goodness, a secrefy, which much recommend the action. He desires to go and see her, and I shall go with him. I have not written in this Journal, that we went a few days ago to see another poor woman delivered from shocking want by the charity of the princes, and of mademoiselle.’ In a note, madame Brulart informs us, that for such actions her enemies accuse her of taking her disciples to the houses of the poor, in order to seduce the people !

On the 19th of July, 1789, during the epoch of the revolution, madame Brulart read an animated lecture to her disciples, concluding thus: ‘You cannot justify yourselves in my eyes, except by starting at once from that infancy in which you are buried, and in accomplishing henceforth your duties with the greatest distinction. No more words: actions, constant actions.’ In a note she informs us, that this lecture delivered them at once from infancy: those who have never educated children cannot imagine what effects one forcible lesson, at a proper time, may produce upon young imaginations and pure hearts.

At the conclusion of this volume we find a memoir of madame Brulart on the dispute between the duchess of Orleans and her. She represents the duchess as a lady of great worth and amiable temper, but influenced against her by the countess de Chatelux, an intimate confidante. This lady and her husband were introduced into the family of Orleans by madame Brulart, and repaid the service with complete active ingratitude. In the second volume we learn that she is an English woman, of the name of Plunket. She so far incited the duchess against her benefactress, that the education of the sons being terminated, madame Brulart was forced to abandon her care of mademoiselle, whose sudden and violent change of health upon the occasion was the cause of madame Brulart’s resuming her station as her governess. The duke of Orleans, incensed at the conduct of madame de Chatelux, desired her to chuse some other residence than his house, and to send within a fortnight the keys of her apartment at the Palais Royal. The consequence of this step was a demand of separation, made by the duchess.

In proceeding to the second volume, which consists of extracts of different journals of this important education, the first object which attracts our attention is the unrivalled assiduity of the authoress.

‘ Monday 17th June. — M. le Brun remarks that the princes having returned, rested till eight o’clock, at which hour he conducted them to me.

‘ I do not approve of such repose, they must not be accustomed to regard complete idleness as repose; besides they would not have been fatigued by a walk of an hour. They must never remain without doing any thing, were it only for six minutes. This quarter of an hour might have been employed in playing at chess, in heraldry, in repeating terms of architecture, or at a lecture. In a word, never two minutes, nor even one, of idleness.’

This is surely far too severe, this *forcing* might produce precocious fruit; but we should prefer more time and more vigour in the seasonable production. The bow should be now and then quite unbent. What are we to make of a quarter of an hour at chess?

The contests with the abbe Guyot, one of the under-governors, are disgusting in an eminent degree. That madame Brulart should have carried on this paper-war in the written Journal is surprising; but that she could think of printing it is inconceivable. Here is a specimen, from p. 211.

‘ I find the answer of M. l’abbe false and injurious; he does not answer accusations which are facts, known to all. I do not complain that he has discontinued his visits: I tell, without complaint, the mere facts; which are, that he dispenses with mere common politeness towards me, and what is more, towards my mother; I say, that he alone never asks how she does, nor bids her good-day, any more than he does me,’ &c. &c. *Id populus curat scilicet!* When one sees the merest dregs of conversation committed to the press, here and in France, one is tempted to conclude that the dotage of literature approaches. The reader will hardly believe that about 200 pages out of 578, in this second volume, are occupied with scolding! If madame Brulart professes to teach this noble science, she should establish her academy among the *poissardes*. How she can seriously recommend this volume to fathers of families, or to teachers, who have generally scolding enough at home, we cannot conceive; any more than we can see the fitness of putting the former volume into the hands of children, while it contains a severe accusation of a mother, an object ever sacred to a well-educated child.

Disgusted with this part, we shall pass to a more pleasing

APP. VOL. IV. NEW ARR.

M m article,

article, the extracts from the journal of madame Brulart's travels with her disciples, through various parts of France. She describes, in a very agreeable manner, many objects unvisited by the generality of travellers. The most complete accounts are those of the monastery of La Trappe, a villa called Navarre near Conches, Maupertuis, Cayeu, Mont Saint Michel in Normandy, &c. Of Navarre our governess observes, ' I believe that the gardens here are beyond all comparison the most beautiful and agreeable in France: they appear to me infinitely superior to those of Chantilly: they are immense, and united to a vast forest. The pieces of water are admirable; a beautiful and large natural river passes through the gardens, and forms streams and cascades which play night and day, and in all seasons. The wonderful beauty of the woods and waters, that majestic forest which surrounds the gardens, the profusion of flowers, the great quantity of rare trees and shrubs, the magnificence of the buildings, the variety of the ground, the good taste and greatness which rule in general the distribution and the plan, the vast extent of the gardens, all conspire to render this place truly worthy to excite the curiosity of our amateurs and of foreigners. In the French division the temple of Hebe is the most remarkable; it is delicious from its cascades, its flowers, and the points of view which embellish it. In the English part, the most charming fabric is the temple of Love, in the isle of the same name. On the outside it represents a beautiful temple in ruins, ornamented with antique basso relievos. The inside is magic; an elegant round saloon, clothed with white marble, and supported by columns of crystal, of an exquisite violet colour, through the transparency of which the day glimmers. Many tripods enriched with gilt bronzes, and upon which perfumes burn, are placed between the columns. In different recesses are placed canopies. This saloon is lighted from the cupola, and by the mild light which penetrates through the columns. The furniture, which is of white satin embroidered, does not correspond with the rest: it ought to be of violet satin with gold fringe; and I should also wish that the cupola were glazed with violet-coloured glass, to agree with the pillars.'

The following description presents a strong contrast. ' We went this afternoon to see a very singular village, called Cayeu. It is on the sea-shore, and consists of about 800 houses. The shore is there very high, and is composed of sand thrown up by the wind, which sometimes carries the sand all over the village; so that in walking through that melancholy place one is up to the ankle in sand, and for a great extent there grows neither tree nor bush, nor a pile of grass. One would believe

one's

one's-self transported into the deserts of Africa; and when the wind is violent, which is common on the coast, the sand rises in whirls, and entirely covers this unfortunate village. But fishing, and a consequent security of subsistence, retains the wretched inhabitants, in spite of so much misery, and in spite of the deprivation of verdure, fruits, herbs, sweet water, and of all that nature every where else offers to the poor.'

We cannot conclude without recommending madame Brulart's observations on the gymnastic part of education to public attention; for this important province, though gradually acquiring notice, is not yet regarded in the essential point of view which it demands.

Storia della Pittura, e la Scultura, da i Tempi più Antichi.

The History of Painting and Sculpture from the earliest Accounts. Vol. I. 4to: Calcutta. 1788.

THIS singular work is written in Italian and English, corresponding page for page. The author, Mr. Hickey, informs us in his Preface, that the idea of such a work had engaged his casual reflection for some considerable time; but he had not an opportunity of pursuing his design, until the leisure of a slow India voyage suggested the means.

' From the limited number of books which formed his little collection during the passage, and from the small hopes which he entertained of procuring here such as were necessary for his purpose, and for a variety of other reasons on his arrival in Calcutta, he determined to reserve for some future leisure, such as a returning voyage might afford, the employment of resuming the subject.

' But the intense heat which for a certain portion of a year, almost suspends every occupation, but that of writing, at which time other circumstances unite to cause a cessation of his professional employment, and have concurred to revive the thought, and, at length prompted to a diligent enquiry after such aids as might here be obtained as to books.

' From the polite and liberal access afforded to him by those gentlemen here, who hold the most distinguished rank in their learned professions, he procured such an unexpected supply from their valuable libraries as greatly encouraged him to persevere; and, in the end enabled him to present this little specimen of his labours to the public inspection.'

To the Preface succeeds an Introduction, the first paragraph of which is chosen, as an impartial specimen of Mr. Hickey's prolix language, and uncommon phraseology.

‘ The works of great artists, as far as relates to the arts, form the most instructive history of their lives ; and, where any further knowledge, that may develope the means by which they brought their operations to effect, can by any research or industry be attained, in cannot fail to advance the progress of the arts, and strengthen the force of those examples. Men of singular talents, and accomplished powers, in professions whose original merits lye in the intellect itself, are, in their characters and manners also, subjects concerning whom our curiosity is naturally excited ; and often, from a contemplation of these, lessons of instruction may be derived, of further indulgence to the enquiry : and, though the essential uses that are to be drawn from the lives of the artists, more immediately relate to the arts themselves, yet, from the influence which their encouragement and superior progress in a state has upon its wealth and political consequence, it is a subject which, in some measure, cannot but be interesting to the community at large, but more especially to the select and enlightened representations of it.’

In the same style is the rest of the work ; which is, in general, illiterate, erroneous, and languid, in no inferior degree. It is almost entirely derived from the productions of Adriani, Carlo Dati, and other Italian writers, whose sentences supply much of the Italian text. The original writers, Mr. Hickey seems rarely to have consulted ; and we cannot find that Junius *de Pictura Veterum* is even known to him by name. We shall only further remark on the Introduction that Appelles and Felebien, are specimens of mere orthography ; and that the authors of the lives of the painters, at the end of Dryden’s translation of Fresnoy, unknown to Mr. H. was one Graham.

In the work, as our author informs us, the passages not marked with inverted commas, are from Adriani, &c. and the rest of the work must be laid to the author’s charge ; who, as we judge from the conclusion of the Introduction, is a portrait painter. Not to speak of the absurdity of putting marks of quotation to his own paragraphs, and omitting them before the passages really quoted, we must say that the verbosity and ungrammatical Italian may be fairly charged to the author, but little of the sense or information is his own.

Mr. Hickey has a particular ill fortune in stumbling on the threshold : his work begins with the following curious sentence :

‘ The remote antiquity to which the arts are indebted for their origin, lies so far beyond the investigation of their researches, that even our imagination is frustrated in the attempt to alight upon the period of their outset.’

The origin and early progress of painting is traced, in a vague and inauthenticated manner, from Egypt to Greece. Many are the digressions on Homer and Herodotus, and other trivial themes; but as a more favourable specimen of this work, we shall select the following extract. After mentioning the supposed invention of painting by the Corinthian maid, and the progress of Cleanthes of Corinth, who drew portraits without the aid of the lamp and shadow, Mr. H. proceeds.

‘ The imitative powers, thus roused into action, communicated their influence from Cleanthes to Ardices of Corinth and Telephanes of Sicyon; who both carried the art a step farther, boldly venturing to mark the inward portions of the figure; and, by means of lines scattered throughout, attempted to shadow it, without, however, the assistance of any colour. At this stage of the art it was the custom to write, under each performance, the name of the person or thing which was intended to be represented.

‘ To give to this last improvement of shadowing, by lines and scratches, the addition of colour, fell to the invention of Cleophanes of Corinth.

‘ To him succeeded Hygienon, Dinias, and Charmas; who advanced the art so far as to distinguish, in his pictures, a man from a woman, without the assistance of writing at the bottom.

‘ Eumarus, the Athenian, ventured to attempt drawing a variety of figures, and

‘ Cimon, the Cleonian, improved upon him, so far as to draw objects out of their direct and horizontal positions, and boldly venture at foreshortenings, and also to turn the face into different directions, to mark the articulation at the joints of his figures, distinguish the veins, and bend his drapery into some folds.

‘ This effort, therefore, of Cymon, must appear to have been no inconsiderable stride towards improvement.

‘ However, to this stage of the art we can easily conceive that its attempts might have arrived at a very early progress of cultivated society, not only amongst the Greeks, but in the infancy of any other nation; and it is, perhaps, the very mode of proceeding which, in every country, the art would adopt, independent of communications with more enlightened people. Hence, amongst those of Greece, who afterwards became the most illustrious in the arts, we may ascribe that progress, as far as the time of Cymon, to the remote ages of their antiquities; in which proceeding we are seconded by the ancient writers, to whom no memorial had been transmitted respecting the period in which those artists lived.

‘ In this place there succeeds an interval of great extent, from which not a ray of information proceeds, to assist our enquiries, in the history of Grecian artists, until the time of Candaules, king of Lydia, who died about 690 years before the birth of our Saviour ; and of whom it is recorded, that a picture, in which Bularchus had painted a battle of the Magnessians, afforded him so much pleasure, that he rewarded Bularchus for the picture with its weight in gold. In such a degree of estimation was painting held at that period.

‘ From the testimony of Pliny it is also affirmed, that in his time there were evident proofs that painting had been introduced, even in Italy, before the time of Romulus ; for, that in the ancient city of Ardea, there existed pictures of that antiquity, and that had been so well preserved as to appear of recent date.

‘ At Lanuvium also, and by the hand of the same artist, he says, that there was an Atalanta and a Helen of such excellent performance, that Pontius, the lieutenant of the emperor Caius, wished so much to have them, particularly the Atalanta, that he would have preserved them from the ruins of the temple, and taken them away, if the vaulted shape of the ceiling, where they were painted, had permitted him to remove them.

‘ By what steps the art had advanced to that point, reached by Bularchus, about the 20th olympiad, lies, as we have observed, wholly concealed from our knowledge ; but, from what has been laid down, it must appear evident, that the progress was not made by those slow degrees which, without the intercourse of other nations where the arts had already arrived at a flourishing state, the Greeks of themselves would have advanced it. The arts were at once transplanted to Greece with the colonies from Egypt.

‘ That the records of painting, prior to the 20th olympiad, should not have reached us, does not appear a matter of surprise ; but that from that period a space of two hundred years should have elapsed, without furnishing us with any memorials concerning them, cannot but excite our wonder ; especially as that space comprises, in the Grecian history, a catalogue of names, which either as heroes, philosophers, historians, or poets, gave the brightest lustre to their annals. We, hence, have no inconsiderable cause to lament the silence under which the art, during that period, continued its operations.’

Upon this pause our author passes to the origin of ancient sculpture. After which we find the life of Phidias, followed by a chronological table of the progress of ancient painting and sculpture. Mr. Hickey then returns to the history of

ancient painting, and gives us the life of Polygnotus at great length. To this succeed short accounts of some other painters; and the work is closed by a long life of Zeuxis, which was before published separately.

In treating of ancient sculpture Mr. H. presents us with a tedious digression on the olympiads—because the periods of ancient artists are calculated by these epochs! In p. lxxvii. &c. the works of Lescheus Pyrrhoeus, and other ancient writers, now lost, are quoted with the same familiarity as if printed by Aldus. How ignorant one may be in appearing learned! Mr. H. in aspiring to write Italian, sometimes makes his Italian a kind of English; the following sentence, p. xcv. appears to be neither Italian nor English.

‘Where under their leafy honours, at length, poets by profession sung to perpetuity the blooming theme.’

To the learned reader any information, contained in this motley compilation from Adriani and Dati, will have no novelty; and to the unlearned the Italian pages, and the size and price, will form material objections. We shall, however, take leave of Mr. Hickey in good humour, with the following extract, translated from Carlo Dati.

‘Zeuxis, with great reluctance, or very seldom, employed his pencil or his genius on common or trivial subjects; and, entertaining the idea of going out of the beaten track, a fancy struck him of representing, in a shady spot, enriched with foliage and with flowers, a female centaur, with the equine part at rest upon the ground, in such a position as that the hinder part appeared under the crupper. The feminine part appeared elegantly raised up, and inclining upon the elbow. One of the fore feet was kneeling, with the hoof retired inwards, and encurved within itself; the other was raised, and the hoof, towards the ground, shewed just that position of it which a horse makes when he endeavours to get up. With her were two little centaurs, one in her arms, whom she suckled as a woman, the other centaur was sucking at the teat, in the way that foals do. In the upper part of the picture, a centaur, her husband, as from a place where he had been watching, seemed to rush out upon them; and, smiling at her, held the cub of a lion in his right hand, and seemed to raise it up by way of frightening the little centaurs.

‘The centaur was represented as rough, grim, and vulgar, with his hair all tumbled and clotted, his skin rugged and bristly, not only where he appeared as a horse, but even in his human part, with his shoulders raised up; and his face, though in a laughing expression, yet every way brutal and ferocious. The equine part of the female centaur was represented as a beautiful mare, of that untamed Thessalian breed, which never

submits to any burden. The half which appeared as a woman was drawn throughout with extraordinary beauty, except the ears, which were coarse and deformed. But in the joining, where the woman united with the mare, it was done with such skill, and so beautifully blended, as to elude discovery. The little centaurs were in colour resembling the mother. One of them was exactly like the father in coarseness and rusticity; and, though at that tender age, his aspect bore the character of fierceness and barbarity. But singularly admirable was the artist's observation of nature, in making the little centaurs fix their eyes upon the young lion, yet closely adhere to the mother's breast. 'This picture, also, in the other departments which the learned admire in the art, was very capital, in the beauty of expression, intelligence of light and shade, the colouring, and in the facility and judgment in the execution of the pencil.'

*Annales de Chymie, Vol. VI. and VII. (Continued from Vol. II,
New Arrang. p. 100.*

WE now resume the two last volumes of these Annals, published in the present form, and shall proceed in the usual order. The first essay is an extract from M. Crell's Journal, by M. Haffenfratz. These facts are miscellaneous, and it will be sufficient for us to notice some of the most important. The zir-kons, a peculiar fossil discovered in the German mines, is found to contain a new earth in a pretty large proportion united with flint, and a very little calx of iron. The adamantine spar also contains a very particular kind of earth, which is, with some difficulty, soluble, when combined with clay, but is totally insoluble in alkalis and acids, at the moment of separation. The acid, in the Saxon ore of mercury, is found to be the muriatic, not the sulphuric. M. Raspe has confirmed the observation of Bergman, that manganese would attract humidity, and calcine in the open air. The supposed earth of Diamond, from China, appears to be only the dust of the adamantine spar. M. Schuler makes a blue sealing-wax with the mountain blue, purified by melting it with an ounce of talc.

M. Schuler has made some improvements, though of no great importance, on the preparation of tartarised tartar. He prepares in a very neat way the tartrite of soda from a mixture of cream of tartar and soda, separating the pot ash, by adding Glauber's salt. The vitriolated tartar is separated by taking advantage of its property of dissolving less easily in cold than in warm water. This chemist prepares also the dissoluble tartar by means of borax, without adverting to the chemical change occasioned in the cream of tartar, by a double elective attraction. The tartarised steel he prepares by mixing two ounces, two drachms, of steel with twelve ounces of cream of tartar,

tartar, and pouring water on the whole: in twelve days the union is complete, and twelve ounces of tartarised steel easily soluble in water, may be obtained by evaporation. The same author found that the acid of the black elder was of the tar-tarous kind approaching to the acetous.

M. Born has discovered, that the fossil styled the spar of zinc is only the tungstein chryallised, containing, however, some proportion of zinc. M. Lowitz has said that charcoal is soluble in pot ash, and many other substances, imparting a brown colour; but M. Hahneman, when he repeated the experiments on smaller quantities, could not succeed. As M. Lowitz' former experiments on the antisepctic power of charcoal, though at first denied, have been since confirmed, we have the fuller confidence in these. M. Bofer has made many trials to fix the colour of the wood of Fernambouc, in good preservation, on linen and cotton. The method which answers best is, mixing a quart of distilled water, with an ounce of alum, and a sufficient quantity of clay, united with two ounces of Fernambouc. When reduced to three quarters of the original quantity, it becomes glutinous, and the linen or cotton must be put in. M. Westrumb has at last succeeded in separating the alkali from common salt, but the process is tedious and not likely to answer for the purpose of manufacturers. M. Born mentions the discovery of a new kind of cinnabar of a much more brilliant colour, which breaks like spar, and seems, by this evidence, to contain some lime.

The roots of the mercurialis perennis differ greatly in their sizes: some are very slender, and others thick: of the latter, some turn, on being exposed to the air, of a beautiful violet and brilliant blue. This colour is soluble in water, and not changed by alkalis, vinegar, or alum. The thick roots, which do not assume this blue colour, give a beautiful carmine red. M. Westrumb, in his analysis of calculi of the bladder, has been able to discover no acid: he finds only an oily substance, a little ammoniacal salt, and a calcareous phosphat. The same author confirms M. Lowitz' observations on the effects of charcoal, in purifying and whitening alkaline and neutral salts.

It has been lately supposed in Germany, that cobalt was susceptible of magnetism; but M. Kunse-Muller, in repeating the experiments of M. Kohl, discovered that this was owing to an accidental impregnation of iron. A little vitriolated lead has been found in the oil of vitriol manufactured in England: it is discovered in the powder precipitated by mixing equal quantities of water with the acid. Manganese has been obtained pure, by the humid way, and it seems now also to be generally agreed, that phosphorus is a constituent part of the

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Prussic acid. Some calculi, found in an abscess, appeared very nearly to resemble bezoars, being composed of phosphorus, a fatty oil, calcareous earth, and a little fixed acid. M. Brugnatelli tells us, that the benzoic acid may be obtained by means of diluted alcohol, and the crystals resemble those of the sublimed acid. This acid may be managed so as to procure a new sympathetic ink, whose traces become legible by exposing them to nitrous gas or smoking nitrous acid. From M. Westrumb's experiments, which he has not yet published at length, all the vegetable acids appear to be only combinations of the phosphoric and fixed air.—The schists of Normandy are supposed to contain a large proportion of magnesia.

M. Vogel has discovered an ingenious method of amalgamating mercury with iron, by rubbing half an ounce of powdered filings of iron, with an ounce of alum. This mixture will amalgamate three half ounces of mercury, and the alum may be afterwards washed away.—The oils of parsley and fennel seem to contain oxalic and tartarous acids.—Black ink, which smells like a rose, may, it is said, be obtained by a decoction of the tormentilla erecta. It is made in the usual method, and the proportion of vitriol is three drachms to a decoction made with seven ounces of water. M. Voyler's method of fixing on cotton or linen a beautiful black colour is, first to immerse the linen in a solution of litharge prepared by adding it to a very diluted nitrous acid; then successively to dip it in the infusion of galls, and solution of vitriol. The tin of Saxony, it is found, contains no arsenic; that of Sweden a large proportion, though not in such a state as to be dangerous. M. Westrumb has obtained red vapours of nitrous acid, and even water acidulated with the same acid, by burning a mixture of hepatic and inflammable airs, in vital air; and burning deal and agarics in the same oxygen. This seems to confirm Dr. Priestley's opinions. The nitrous acid may be also oxygenated by distilling it from manganese, and this acid will dissolve tin, without becoming foul by a slight dilution. M. Hermbstadt seems to have procured the acid base of tin, in a less exceptionable way, with less of suspicion of acidity from the mineral acids, by employing the dephlogisticated nitrous acid. The purest and most concentrated acetous acid may be procured, we are told, by M. Brugnatelli, from the barytic acetite.—The flowers of the alcea purpurea are said to be the nicest and best reagent to discover acids and alkalis—these are some of the more important chemical facts in the first abstract.

The second subject is an abstract on M. Du Trone's work on the sugar cane, which we have long since noticed. This part consists chiefly of the method of manufacturing sugar, drawn from the volume.

A report

A report on the art of assaying gold follows. Six circumstances seem principally to influence the operation, 1. the quantity of acid employed in the parting: 2. the concentration of the acid; 3. the duration of the process: 4. the quantity of acid employed at renewing the process: 5. its concentration; and, 6. the duration of this process. If either of these circumstances are unfavourable, it may occasion the loss from half the thirty-second of a carat, to four times that quantity. If all were to be unfavourable, the deficiency would be greater. These data, however, account for the variations in different assays by different operators, and point out the necessity of one steady, constant, uniform method, which is afterwards described, but is incapable of being abridged.

The academicians' report on the antimephytic pumps, is in many respects curious, but not of a sufficiently delicate nature to be explained in a popular work. It relates to the method of clearing the fosses d'aisance, from their foul air and foul matter, a circumstance seemingly of great importance in Paris. The inflammable air arising is supposed to be injurious to health, but injury is in general derived only from the inflammable air escaping in consequence of the putrefaction of vegetables, or of human bodies in a diseased or a crowded state. A little historical introduction respecting the conduct of ancient and modern cities, in these conveniences, is curious.

The letter of M. M. Sylvestre, and the abbé Chappe, contains a description of a more convenient machine to repeat the experiments of M. M. Troostwych and Derman, on the decomposition of water, by means of the electrical spark. The result of the experiments is to be the subject of a future communication.

M. Fourcroy's analysis of a black ferruginous sand from the island of St. Domingo follows: it seems to be a pure calx of iron, with about $\frac{1}{2}$ of chalk, and some true sand.

M. Pugot and Damy obtained a patent in 1785, for the purpose of plating copper vessels with silver. Various circumstances have occasioned the foundation of the operation to be enquired into, and the academicians were principally directed to examine, whether the copper was completely covered; what was the thickness of the silver, what the nature of the union between the two metals, and how soon the silver may probably be destroyed by use. The enquiry is favourable to the manufacturers: $\frac{1}{80}$ of a line is found sufficient thickness to guard the copper from acids; but they recommend, rather, for kitchen utensils, the silver to be $\frac{1}{5}$ of a line, or $\frac{1}{40}$ of an English inch. As the expence of the workmanship is the same, they think it may be economical to have it still more solid. The union is very firm, and, as only the finest silver can be used, they think this manufacture superior to solid silver, which is generally alloyed by a mixture of copper.

An abstract of the abbé Hauy's memoirs on the crystals, usually called the stones of the crofs, the cruciform schorl of De Lisle, follows. These crystals our author would style croisettes, as they form a mark which distinguishes this fossil from the schorls with which it has been hitherto confounded. Its form is a rectangular hexaedral prism, two angles of the base being larger than the four other angles: these prisms usually cross each other in pairs.

M. de la Crouse's letter relates to a different result of the same experiment in the hands of M. de la Metherie and M. Hassenfratz, respecting the change in the nature of vital air by standing in water. The letter maintained, that its properties were not altered nor its quantity diminished, a result confirmed by M. de la Croix.

Some account of a work entitled a Chemical Analysis of the Sulphur Water of Enghien follows; but, this we have already considered in a separate article, which has been accidentally delayed. (See p. 513.)

M. Klaproth's note to M. Schurer we shall transcribe, as it is not long. 'M. de la Metherie has given his readers, in the Journal de Physique for November, p. 399, a definition of the pechblende, and the green glimmer, as the substances, which afforded me the new metal, the uranium. I take the liberty of observing to M. de la Metherie, that the pechblende of Cronstedt, which is a true ore of zinc, is not the fossil of Johan-Georgenstadt and of Joachim Sthall, which contains the uranite, while what has been improperly styled green glimmer differs essentially from the true mica of this colour. The substances which I have employed, are the black sulphur of Uranium, and the green sparry calx of Uranium. Cronstedt was acquainted with neither. Sage has described the last under the title of green heavy spar, and the pretended brown earthy ore of iron, is the brown calx of Uranium—Uranium ocreum.'

M. Fourcroy has, it seems, been treated unfairly. We long ago noticed the deficiencies in the animal chemistry; and our author, with his pupil M. Vauquelin, who have made great additions to this branch of science, and often mentioned the facts in their courses, have had reason to regret their candid communications, as their discoveries have been published by others; they have therefore taken the precaution of sending an account of their discoveries to the academy, to be preserved in the secretary's office; and the editor of the 'Annals' has inserted a copy—we shall mention them shortly, as they occur. The oxygenated murratic acid, and the nitric acid, convert gum arabic into the citric and oxalic acids, respectively, a difference we now know to be owing to the proportion of vital air (for we at last are obliged to drop phlogiston, and to declare

declare, that we are become converts to the new doctrine) in the separating acids. The second fact relates to the calces of Tournesol. These, he observes, which are the fæculæ of the croton tinctorium, appear blue, as they contain a mild soda; and acids reddens the tincture only by saturating the soda to which the blue colour was owing. The extractive matter of vegetables is found not to be a soap. It is separated by exposure to air, and absorbs oxygen, which renders it indissoluble. The oxygenated muriatic acid converts it readily into a concrete yellow substance, dissoluble in alkalis and alcohol, but indissoluble in water. The fourth fact is an account of a method of forming the prussic acid, with serum of blood and the nitric acid. The oxygen of the acid certainly contributes to the new production, as it is decomposed. The last fact is a very singular one, and will contribute greatly to derange a large part of the received system of physiology. We shall faithfully translate an account of the experiment. On coagulating by means of fire, blood united to one-third of its weight of water, a liquid separates from the coagulum, which by a careful evaporation (une évaporation ménagée) affords a liquor so much like the gall of an ox, that many persons, without any previous information, have recognised the smell, the colour, and the taste of this secreted fluid; and, in every other respect, by a chemical analysis, it shows the same properties.—Serum, exposed to heat after being mixed with half its weight of water, coagulates in part. The portion of the liquid that does not coagulate, contains a gelatinous matter, which on cooling becomes a jelly. It is mixed with a mild soda and common salt.

Our readers may recollect our having formerly mentioned, that the Royal Society of Medicine at Paris had offered a reward for an analysis of milk, particularly for a comparative account of the properties of different milks. An abstract of the successful dissertation is contained in this volume, and it is in many respects important: we shall select only what is new, or less generally known. The pellicles which arise when *skimmed* milk is put over the fire, resemble, after drying, the internal membrane of an egg, soon become putrid, glairy, and intolerably foetid. On analysis, they leave an earthy residuum insoluble in acids, and unalterable in the fire, most probably a phosphoric salt. When fresh, carefully washed, and put on hot coals, they burn with the odour of hartshorn: distilled they produce water, oil, and volatile alkali, and are consequently clearly of an animal nature. The cheesy matter is intimately combined with the serum, and only deposited when its dissolvents are destroyed, or dispersed: these are the sugar of milk, and the acid formed in consequence of the spontaneous coagulation. When the glutinous matter is boiled with pot ash or caustic

caustic soda, it assumes a deep red, and may be said to be blood reproduced, though the resemblance is in appearance only. During the solution of the soda, the smell of volatile alkali is very sensible, but this salt seems to be formed during the operation. On separating the combination of cheesy matter with the salt of soda, by means of acids, some hepatic gas seems to be formed, and, as the resemblance of this gluten to the white of an egg is conspicuous, it may be supposed that the former contains sulphur as well as the latter. But no sulphur could be discovered in it. The phosphoric acid our authors, M. M. Parmentier and Deyeux, could not find, and Scheele, who first mentioned it, is said never to have described the process by which he obtained it. The sugar of milk is the true essential salt of milk: the acid is only formed in the spontaneous changes, or of some of the ingredients, from the acids employed in the more violent analysis. The differences in the other milks are soon described. The cream of goats and sheep's milk is thicker than in cows: in the milks of women, asses, and mares it is less copious and more fluid. The butter from the cream of sheep is always soft; that of women, asses, and mares milk, is always in the state of a cream, and scarcely can be ever brought to separate, or to continue uncombined. The cheese from the cow and goat is firm and gelatinous; that from the sheep viscous. Cheese from women's milk has scarcely ever any consistence; from asses' and mares' milk, it holds the middle rank between those of the most and least firmness. The serum varies in quantity and nature; it is the sugar of milk that alone appears invariable.

M. Chaptal's Elements of Chemistry, analysed in the next article, we have already noticed. M. Berthollet has communicated also some additions to his descriptions of the process of bleaching, which are too minute and miscellaneous, to admit of an analysis.

A very excellent memoir, by M. Berthollet, on the action of the oxygenated muriatic acid on the colouring particles of different substances, follows. We shall only give a concise abstract of the principal objects to be collected from it. The threads of hemp and cotton are bleached in consequence of their being deprived of the colouring particles, which form from one-fourth to one-third of their weight. But a very small part only of these particles are capable of being dissolved by soap, and, to effect this union, they must have attracted pure air from the atmosphere, from the dew, or the oxygenated acid; hence the necessity of alternating the actions of lixives, and the oxygenating process. When these particles are dissolved by the alkali, they may be precipitated by lime water, and combined with metallic oxids, by means of metallic solutions.

tions. Acids precipitate these colouring particles from alkalis, and the precipitate is of a fawn colour; but, when dry, it is black: before their solution in the alkali, they appear white, and assume the fawn colour by the heat of the lixives. The oxygenated muriatic acid bleaches also the green parts of vegetables, but ebullition renders them yellow: it acts simply by combining with them, diluting, rather than changing, the colour; or, if it changes the colour at all, this is owing to the destruction of the hydrogen. When the oxygenated muriatic acid assumes a yellow, nut, or brown colour, it produces this effect, by rendering the coal predominant, for it takes place only after the substance has been exposed to an intense heat, or a slight combustion.

The nitric and the sulphuric acids give the yellow, nut, brown and black colours to the substances they act on, equally in augmenting the proportion of coal, and diminishing that of hydrogen. The caustic metallic oxids act in the same way on the animal fibres. All those phenomena, with some others in which there is a slight combustion, depend on this: that, at a low temperature, hydrogen combines more readily and easily with oxygen than coal; though, by the concurrence of different affinities, the contrary sometimes happens, particularly in respiration, and the spirituous fermentation.

The diminution of hydrogen is not shown by a change of colour, if the subject changed does not contain coal, as in the destruction of the volatile alkali: it is not even changed, if the substance does contain coal, if the oxygen is fixed in a large proportion. When the nitric acid alters the nature of some of the vegetable acids, it seems principally owing to the diminution of hydrogen, which, with coal, forms their radical. The green part of the leaves, and the second bark of trees, seems the principal source of the colouring particles found in the wood and bark. This green part assumes a nut colour, by the actions of oxygen, and by the combination of this action, which produces a kind of combustion; it finishes with losing, particularly in the bark, the property of circulating in the vessels: it is thrown to the surface, and makes the most solid part of the bark.

M. Westrumb, who still retains the phlogistic system of Stahl, has described numerous experiments, in which different bodies burn in the oxygenated muriatic acid: from these he has since endeavoured to support the fallen doctrine. In this part he is replied to by M. Berthollet. Our author adds some remarks on the nature of the acid, and particularly endeavours to show that its gas is not truly air, but the acid brought into an aerial state by the matter of heat.

The analysis of cassia by M. Vauquelin is not very interesting.

ing. It contains, like other vegetable substances of a similar kind, gluten, jelly, gum, extractive matter, sugar, &c. Some flint was found in the analysis by fire, which our author attributes to the crucible; but having found a siliceous substance in the tabasheer already formed, we would recommend the analysis to be repeated in a black-lead crucible. The acid in the cassia dissolved the copper of the vessels, and tinctured the matter with a pretty considerable cupreous impregnation.

Nitric acid is formed in the mutual decomposition of a mercurial oxid and a volatile alkali, for each substance, in the precipitation of the calx approaching to the metallic state, is decomposed. Azotic gas is produced, which arises from the ammoniac. But M. Fourcroy, to whom we are indebted for these remarks, observing that the quantity of gas was too small in proportion to the oxid reduced, examined the subject more closely. Mr. Milner's observation came to his aid; the experiment, we mean, where, from alkaline gas passing through manganese in a hot iron tube, nitrous gas was obtained. M. M. Vauquelin, Seguin, and Sylvestre, with a porcelain tube, procured nitrat of ammoniac in vapour from azotic gas and water. Another chemist declares that he obtained nitric acid with ammonia and an oxid of lead. Our author explains these facts according to the new system, and indeed it is sufficiently obvious, that the ingredients of the nitrous acid are found in the substances employed, and that only a separation and a new combination is necessary. The azotic gas in the original experiment consequently contributed in part to form the acid, and our author assigns the reason why it was not observed in his former trials. He has since discovered that nitric acid is formed in another way, viz. by pouring the concentrated sulphuric acid on the caustic mineral alkali saturated with the Prussic acid.

The last essay in this volume is on the mechanism of felt-making. Though every hair appears in the microscope smooth, it is certainly, from a well-known experiment, scaly; and the scales are always in the same direction. The fibres of wool are similarly constructed, and it is from these scales which, as the hairs in the manufacture of hat-making are scattered in every direction, that the firmness of the felt is derived: the fibres are united and locked together by means of the little lamellæ. To render the texture more firm, these fibres must assume the shape of curves, &c. or indeed any figure except a rectilineal. For this purpose, before the wool is separated, it is rubbed with a brush moistened with nitrated mercury: the fur of the hat is laid on afterwards, and the wool for this purpose does not undergo the last operation. The effect of the mercury

mercury is not known. The effect of the fulling-mill on cloths is a very similar operation to the manufacture of felt.

We find we must still defer the seventh volume : the variety of interesting information in this before us has rendered our Article more extensive than we supposed it would have been.

Analyse Chymique de l'Eau Sulfureuse d'Enghein, pour servir à l'Histoire des Eaux sulfureux en général. Par M. M. Fourcroy & De la Porte, Médecines de la Faculté de Paris, & de la Société Royale de Médecine. Paris. 8vo. Cachel.

THE waters of Enghein are not of sufficient importance of themselves to attract our attention ; but, as one object of the Royal Society of Medicine was to obtain a knowledge of the mineral waters of France, and as they found the analyses sent not always sufficiently correct to enable them to obtain an accurate knowledge of the real nature of the waters examined, they directed two of the fellows to publish an analysis of some particular water, as a specimen. In this country, we find the chemists not always acquainted with the subject, or not pursuing the enquiry with scientific accuracy, so that a more particular notice of this work is peculiarly necessary in this kingdom.

It is impossible, in a Journal like ours, to point out all the experiments, related with peculiar accuracy, in a work of near 400 pages : it is sufficient to describe the plan pursued, and the new results from their analysis. They first give an account of the situation of the spring of Enghein, or, as they were formerly called, the waters of Montmorency : they next describe the labours of their predecessors in this department, in whom we perceive Macquer, father Cottee, M. M. Vaillard, Roux, and Deyeux. The third chapter contains the physical properties of the water, including its smell, taste, specific gravity, limpidity, temperature, &c. In the fourth are the appearances perceived, when the water is heated to different temperatures, for a longer or a shorter period, particularly the time when the hydrogenous, sulphurated gas, separates at different temperatures. The fifth chapter, the most original of the whole work, contains the phenomena which the waters of Enghein afford by exposure to air, the diminution, and modification of its odour, till it is entirely lost ; the precipitates and the pellicles formed on it ; the time in which it is completely decomposed, the cause which produces it, viz. the action of the atmospheric oxygen ; the quantity of the precipitate, which amounts to about forty grains from fifty pounds of water ; the nature of the deposit, containing sulphur, mild lime, and magnesia.

The general observations on the manner of employing reagents in the great way, on the examination of the precipitates, the choice of the reagents, and on the possibility of employing every chemical body as a reagent, constitute the sixth chapter. The seven following ones are employed in describing the actions of colouring materials, of alkalies, acids, saline and earthy neutrals, metals, their calces, metallic solutions, soap alcohol, and many vegetable and animal substances on the waters of Enghein. These are not simple accounts of trials made in the small way, on a few ounces of the water mixed with a few drops of the reagents. The quantities are several pints, and the appearances during the precipitation are described; an analysis of the receptacles formed by each reagent is added, and particularly an examination of those formed by the sulphureous acid, the oxygenated muriatic acid, some metallic calces, particularly solutions of arsenic, antimony, mercury, silver, &c. Many of these chapters contain new facts and discoveries applicable to the analysis of sulphureous waters. Among these are the combustion and solution of the sulphur precipitated from the water, by the nitrous and oxygenated muriatic acids; the means of separating the sulphur, thus precipitated in the form of flocculi; the volatilization of this sulphur, by water heated to 60° ; the sulphureous acid formed by burning this body in the water, by the oxygen of the nitrous and oxygenated muriatic acids; the rapid separation of this combustible body by the oxids of lead, arsenic, and mercury; the manner of separating and obtaining separately the precipitates of a different nature, formed at the same time, by some of these reagents, and particularly by some of the metallic solutions. The effect of these solutions, considered as three classes and bodies, are carefully compared with the phænomena: some of these, as the sublimated muriats of arsenic and antimony decompose the sulphurated hydrogen gas, which mineralizes the water of Enghein, and give at the same time a precipitate through the water: others, as the nitrats of silver and of mercury, furnish sulphures or sulphurated calces mixed with sulfats and muriated metallic salts, because they have the power of decomposing the vitriolic and muriatic salts in the water. The third class of these metallic solutions contain those not decomposed by the water, nor the salts, but effected only by the gas; the corrosive sublimate for instance, with the green and white vitriols, whose effects are consequently less complicated, and more easily ascertained.

The contact of the air decomposes the gas; and, in the fourteenth chapter, are the experiments on the water thus decomposed of its air, containing only the neutrals. The fifteenth chapter is on those contents which, from their minute

proportion, are only conspicuous in the concentrated water, reduced to $\frac{1}{160}$ of its weight. In this water, by means of ammonia and calcareous muriat, the sulfat of magnesia was discovered, not ascertained by the former expertness.

From a comparison of the different experiments, our authors find, that the waters of Enghein are mineralised by sulphurated hydrogen gas, sulfat of magnesia, sulfat of lime, muriat of magnesia, carbonat of magnesia, and lime rendered soluble by fixed air.

In the experiments to ascertain the quantity of gas, our authors were often disappointed; for, in the receiver, there was common air enough to decompose the sulphurated hydrogen, or it was in part decomposed by the heat, discoverable by the brilliant green colour which the water assumes, when heated to a certain degree: the proportion was also lessened by the absorption from the water, or the mercury in the apparatus, and by the mixture of this gas with the fixed air, disengaged at the same time. The appearances in distillation are also described. In distilling six pints of water the gas came over wholly in the first part.

In the eighteenth chapter, they carefully describe the appearances observed in distilling 300 pints of the water; the colour, which becomes at first yellow, afterwards a brilliant beautiful green; the total disappearance of the colours; the light pellicle formed on the surface; the breaking of this pellicle by ebullition; the precipitate which succeeds, and the faint smell of the water at this period, resembling boiled beans. They remark that the green colour is not observable when the water is evaporated in a balneum mariæ, though it appears when the heat is higher; and that the evaporation by ebullition changes the principles, forming an earthy sulphur, which is the cause of the colour, while the residuum is still more altered, if the evaporation is more rapid. They were therefore obliged to evaporate 300 pints of the water wholly deprived of its sulphur by the contact of the air, in order to ascertain exactly the nature and properties of its fixed principles. These details occur particularly in the nineteenth chapter, and are mentioned to guard chemists against the numerous fallacies that may mislead them in the examination of sulphur waters, particularly when the sulphur remains with the fixed principles, in the state of sulphurated lime. This earthy sulphur is decomposed by air, is soluble in alcohol, burns in part during the operation, forms the sulphureous and sulphuric acids, changing the nature and proportion of all the fixed principles in every period of the process.

Aware of these difficulties, our authors proceed to examine the fixed residuum of the Enghein waters, decomposed and

deprived of its sulphur by the contact of the air. 100 pints they found contained 700 cubic inches of hepatic gas, holding 84 grains of sulphur; 2 drachms 41 grains of fixed air; 2 drachms 14 grains of Epsom salt; 4 drachms 45 grains of selenite; 24 grains of sea salt; 1 drachm 8 grains of muriated magnesia; 2 drachms 70 grains of mild calcareous earth; 13 $\frac{1}{3}$ grains of aerated magnesia.

In the twenty-second chapter, the incrustations formed on the arch, and the pellicles thrown up to the surface, are described and analysed. They show, that sulphur raised in vapours, burns slowly in air, and produces the sulphuric acid formed on the arch of the spring: the sulphur of the pellicles is mixed with aerated lime and magnesia. The first is separated from the water by the evaporation of the hepatic gas: the second by the evaporation of the fixed air.

In the twenty-third chapter, are the new applications which this analysis affords in the examination of sulphureous waters. They have, in general, occurred in our account, and they are only in this chapter collected, so as to be more striking: they deserve the attention of every intelligent chemist. The last chapter treats of the medicinal properties of these waters, and their administration: this we know in general from what we are acquainted with, respecting the virtues of our own springs at Harrowgate. We must conclude with the fullest and warmest approbation of this work, which we could wish to see imitated by a truly scientific analysis of some of the English mineral waters. That at Bath particularly requires an attentive examination, with the new chemical resources in our hands.

Voyage sur le Rhin depuis Mayence, jusqu'à Dusseldorf. 2 Vol. 8vo. Neuweid. Chez la Société Typographique.

THE banks of the Rhine, distinguished for the most beautiful prospects, for the most interesting military exploits, celebrated both in literary and civil history, were expected to be again the scene of war; and, when we first took up the volumes, which from their intrinsic merit, we thought deserved some notice, we had reason to apprehend that the account would be particularly interesting. Circumstances have however changed, and events may be influenced by this change, but they are not of sufficient importance to induce us to lay them again aside. Mayence, our traveller's first object, is a flourishing town: commerce, and its attendant luxury, have introduced improvements and vices. 'Every happy country cultivates genius, and Mayence is a proof of its position. Its university has kept pace with its trade, and it now boasts

boasts of a great number of men, truly learned, whose minds are enlightened by every kind of science.' The Gothic castle of Martinsbourg is still a part of the electoral residence, and there are few buildings whose apartments are more spacious and more commodious. The two large rooms, which form the library, are equally beautiful and elegant: the books are of the scarcest kinds. Mayence indeed deserves to possess the rarest editions, since Fust was its citizen. The invention is carried by our author so far back as 1441. The oldest printed book, the Latin Bible, cannot, however, by any ingenuity be supposed of an earlier date than 1450: more probably it belongs to 1455. A copy of this Bible *was* in the library of cardinal Mazarin, but it has no date nor place: from many circumstances it appears to be an older book than the psalters of Mayence in 1457 and 1459 for this reason, that the initial letters in the Bible are written, while in the psalters they are printed in imitation of the writing. We have called the Bible the first *printed* book, though, from comparing all the circumstances, the Speculum Sanitatis and Ars Moriendi appear to have been executed earlier. It is well known, that wooden plates were anterior to moveable types, and these two works are of this class, so that they do not invalidate the opinion. Perhaps the argument of priority, from the initial letters being written, is not of great importance, for we have seen an edition of Serapion, printed at Venice so early as 1479 in the Gothic character, where the initials are inscribed with a pen. This edition seems to have escaped the attention of De Bure—but we must not wander too far from Mayence. The Benedictines, in this town, are worthy successors of John Fust: they neither forget the cause of literature nor themselves. Their library and their vaults contain the rarest, the most precious manuscripts; and the oldest most exquisitely flavoured wines: we may believe our author, when he tells us, that the last are most frequently visited. The vaults are probably well regulated, but in the abbey, there is unfortunately no place for the MSS. or the books to be properly arranged. The baron Dunwald's garden, with his singular curiosities, and the Prévôté of Mayence, would detain us too long. The amusements at Mayence are numerous, and the walks highly celebrated: those, however, of the garden La Favourite seem to be too much in the style of the last century. The apostle of this part of Germany was Boniface, an Englishman. He was the first archbishop, and confessedly softened their ferocity, and polished their manners. Schlozzer, in his Universal History, observes, 'Boniface, in our eyes, is a deity. This Englishman, under the protection of Pepin,

taught us the art of writing : he regulated our hierarchy, and induced us to look on horses' flesh with disgust.'

' On quitting Mayence, my eyes were often turned back to look at this happy city. No : the glorious spectacle will never be effaced from my memory. I shall still fancy that I see the delicious country, the majestic bridge always animated by its passengers, the dome which rises proudly in the air ; and the castle of Martinsbourg, rendered still more respectable by its antiquity : nor shall I forget you, ye floating islands covered with willows and poplars, which sometimes conceal, and sometimes imperfectly discover, through your branches, the falling towers of a half-ruined castle ; nor you majestic river, whose rich banks are covered, on every side, with a rich vineyard, or adorned with a cheerful shepherd, where I saw the tranquil seat of the wealthy monk, near a happy noisy city and the ruins of a vast palace, which the cheerful peasant had converted into a simple farm, covered with new haulm, under which dwelt innocence and gaiety.'

We have selected this specimen of our author's descriptive talents, but must now hasten on more rapidly. He proceeds to Wallauf, Elfeld, Niederingelheim, the favourite habitation of Charlemagne, and once ornamented with a superb palace of which not a wreck remains. After passing Elfeld, the prospects quickly change, and ' On a sudden, almost without perceiving it, I found myself in an uncultivated solitary district, the prospect of which inspired horror and terror. The smiling vineyards were limited to a narrow vale, and, for many leagues, a chain of mountains hid the sun. Even the river seemed inclined to sink under these formidable rocks, and here terminate its course : I saw only a slender rivulet, rolling slowly and with difficulty, between barren banks ; and a forry village, whose tottering huts covered with haulm, and which was concealed by a green moss, offered to the eye the picture of misery and poverty.'

Still following the Rhine, whose course is in this part westerly, our traveller proceeds to Rudesheim and Bingen. This is the district of the Rheingau, the country of the most celebrated Rhenish wine, of which we shall soon select a short account. The city of Rudesheim rises on an amphitheatre from the banks of the Rhine, and is a handsome, well-built town. ' I did not find, says he, in any part of the Rheingau those large strong men of which the French traveller * speaks. I only saw thin dry skeletons, covered with a copper coloured skin, but, to make amends, sensible, lively,

* It may be necessary to observe that these volumes are in part copied from the travels of another author, whose name is concealed.

and ingenuous ; eager in pursuit of natural and moral philosophy. We certainly must not in this place look for the Germans of Tacitus : my host, for instance, was extravagantly polite, but had neither the German sincerity nor probity, and this it is which renders such people intolerable : his wife was still more so. The accent of the inhabitants of the Rheingau borders on the Jewish, and hurts an ear of any delicacy by its sharp nasal tones.' The account of the wines is taken from Gerken, and contains some particulars little known in this country : we shall therefore subjoin an abridged account.

In warm seasons, the wines from the mountains are preferred : in cold, those from the banks of the river. The mountains, whose soil is cold and stony, produce strong rich wines, capable of being kept long : the warmer gravelly soil affords brisk spirituous wines. Those which grow on a rising ground, as at Hockheim, are the best ; for the wines of the lower damper situation are unwholesome. Wines, of the best flavour, grow from a clayey soil, with red marle and ardoise. The wines from a newly dressed hill, are strong and delicious, but unwholesome. Our author prefers the red grape of Burgundy. The marks of genuine sound wine are an agreeable taste, transparency, a little noise heard on pouring it out, and slight bubbles in the middle of the surface which soon disappear.

Bacharach, Kaub, and Obervesel, are the next towns which attract our author's attention, and these are in the northerly course of the Rhine, which bends into that direction by an easy curve soon after passing Bingen. In this course we find nothing very remarkable, except a short account of the famous echo from the rock of Lurleiberg, whose name is derived from this peculiarity. St. Goar, the next town, is commanded by the castle of Rheinfels, built on the top of an abrupt precipice in the dominions of the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, the first seemingly of the German princes, who has felt the influence of the contagion of French liberty. At St. Goar is the fifth custom-house which occurs between this town and Mayence, and it leads our author to some reflections on this interior system of taxation, in which it is unnecessary to follow him. Boppard introduces the traveller to the dominions of the electors of Treves ; is the first considerable town in that prince's dominions, and supposed, without sufficient foundation, to be one of the fifty castles built by Drusus Germanicus.

Coblenz will demand more of our attention. It is said to be greatly improved in its appearance, but commerce has not added its invigorating spirit. The present elector, who seems to be an able and enlightened sovereign, is aware of this de-

fect. 'He knows that commerce is the strongest link which attaches man to man, the soul of Nature, which animates and vivifies every thing, connecting people the most opposite and countries the most distant. Under the influence of commerce, mountains are levelled; distance is annihilated; all the nations of the world form but one vast family.' The inhabitants are described as tall and agreeable; their looks animated; their shapes slender and well formed. Even the citizens of moderate rank display genius, judgment and knowledge, very different from those cold heavy beings, their northern neighbours. The description of the city and antiquities is interesting; but we can catch only, in this hasty copy, the principal features. The studies of those, educated at the college, appear to be well directed: they are not confined only to languages; and the German is taught grammatically. 'Men are taught to know men from history; to know man in particular from the principles of morals, and this kind of morality conducts them to metaphysics of an useful kind, because it is judicious and rational.' to these are added mathematics, natural philosophy, natural history, and the civil law. The citadel is situated on a very abrupt rock, which nature seems to have formed for the purpose. Three winding almost inaccessible paths formerly led to it, at present there are two only, for the third is destroyed. This rock is opposite to the place where the Moselle empties itself into the Rhine; and, from its top, there is a most magnificent prospect. 'The astonished eye beholds a large valley, which declines a little, or rather a vast plain surrounded with mountains, partly cultivated, and in part woody. It is watered by the Rhine, and divided by the Moselle. On the left, the Rhine comes gently from between the mountains; on the right, it moves still more slowly, as if it regretted leaving so charming a spot, and at a distance, which the eye reaches with difficulty, it seems again to conceal itself between other mountains. In front, is Coblenz, whose form is a perfect triangle, and the two islands of the Rhine, of which each has a convent, and the shape of one resembles a heart. Behind the city, at a little distance covered with gardens and orchards, the Chartreuse may be seen on a deep mountain covered with wood and with vines, and a fertile plain with thirty villages of different sizes, separated like so many white cards on a green carpet. At each moment, the picture changes. An immense sea astonishes at first sight; and this astonishment is succeeded by the most sublime ideas, but the wonder soon ceases, and languor succeeds; the variety in the present scene prevents disgust; the eye is fatigued before it is satisfied.' The new palace is described particularly, but such descriptions neither suit our designs or in-

inclinations. For the same reasons we shall pass on, without particularly noticing the castle of Schonbornflust, built by the elector of Schinborn. The manufacture of leather, in this neighbourhood, conducted by M. Decler, is said to be in a very flourishing state, but it is not particularly described.

Neuwied is described by our author with peculiar affection: the victim of ministerial tyranny in France, he fled to this place, and was received by the prince of Weid with particular regard. We wonder not, therefore, at the warmth of his commendations; and, while we have no reason to believe that the prince is not possessed of numerous virtues, we may be pardoned, if we distrust a little the fidelity of the picture in every part. Neuwied contains about six or seven thousand souls, and it is the work of its present sovereign. Numerous establishments are protected by him, and they are all in a flourishing condition: we need only mention, particularly, the printing-office styled the Typographical Society, where the present, and numerous other valuable works have been printed. A society of Herenhutters, disciples of the famous count Zinzendorf, is established in this town, and our author 'glances rapidly' at their union and origin. We shall copy some of the more remarkable circumstances, which, in this hasty sketch, he has noticed.

The principle of union in this singular society is a religious fraternity; but wherever it has appeared, it has equally displayed industry, morality, a love of peace, and simplicity of manners. Their religious principles are the fundamental ones of Christianity, without engaging in disputed dogmas: their morality consists not only in what is necessary to be done or avoided, but is founded on principles connected with their religious system. The maxim of their Apostle, that every one ought to submit to the higher powers, renders them obedient and respectful subjects, even to the religious establishments of the sovereign or the country where they reside; without arrogating privileges or rights incompatible with the constitution. They consider it as a duty to give some reasons for, and account of, their principles and establishment, when called on by government. In their establishments, the education of children is particularly attended to. Each sex has a different school, and different instructors. Luxury and ornaments of every kind are banished from their societies. Marriage, 'whether suggested by their own inclinations, or the advice of their parents, whether the *necessity of the employment or other circumstances point out the propriety of the union*, is treated as a subject of the first importance. It is considered very maturely, and either has the fullest right to refuse the person proposed.

The

The consent of the fathers and mothers is considered as indispensable.'

Their church-yards resemble retired gardens, covered with turf. The tombs are disposed in right lines; those of the men on the right, and of the women on the left. The inscriptions are always equally simple, and their expression for dissolution, '*that he is gone home*,' speaks, in our author's opinion, 'the purity of a soul without reproach and without fear.' In the house of the brethren there are sixty or eighty artists, but a profound silence reigns: whatever they do, is executed with care and taste; and their answers, when questioned, are concise, but courteous and modest. The unmarried brethren sleep in the same room: the married ones are removed to separate houses. The latter are often engaged in commerce, and remarkable for candour, as well as integrity. Our author, however, tells us, that he looked in vain for pleasure and content in their placid countenances: yet they profess themselves happy, and are not tied to the society by any indissoluble link.—We must leave Wied after transcribing one anecdote of its prince.

While the prince was one day on the terrace, he went hastily away, to the shop of a smith. 'Why, says he, is there no noise in thy shop? why are thy hammers idle?' 'Ah! my lord, I have no iron: a misfortune which happened to me last week prevented me from procuring some at this time.' 'What, says the prince, did not you know where I live?' adding, 'how much will the iron necessary for one week cost?' 'About ten crowns.' 'Hearken then—I shall soon find if you have told the truth, or framed an excuse for your idleness: come to me to-morrow at eight.' The enquiry turned out in favour of the poor fellow, and his hammers were again heard.

Andernach is the last city described in the first volume. It is a volcanic country, and furnishes the tufa so useful to the Dutch in forming their dykes. In this neighbourhood, the famous rafts are constructed, which carry the woods of Germany to furnish the dock-yards of Holland. The description of these rafts is in a great measure new and highly interesting.

These immense rafts may be styled a swimming island, one thousand feet long and ninety wide. It supports twelve or fourteen houses constructed of wood, and is directed by five hundred rowers; the lesser rafts are of the same length, and come from above Mayence, but it is only a little below Andernach that they are united into this vast body. Before this large mass are several of the lesser rafts, which precede it like the horses of a carriage. When it is going to depart, an

overseer (maître-valet) surveys the whole, encourages the men, and explains the conditions on which they are hired. Prayers then follow; the anchor is weighed, and the arms of the rowers move with the utmost harmony and precision. Numerous little boats follow the raft, to carry anchors, cordage, and other necessaries. Our author describes the different necessaries, and the cabins of the overseers: they are neat and well arranged; seemingly resembling the cabins in a ship: the provisions are plentiful, and well managed. The rowers lie on straw. The remaining part of the journey must be pursued in another article.

Mémoire sur la Comparaison des Moyens & des Procédés que les Romains employoient dans la Construction de leurs Édifices, avec ceux des Peuples modernes. Par Antoine Mongez, de l'Academie des Inscriptions & Belles Lettres.

THIS Memoir is in many respects curious; and, as it will occur in a collection which we have scarcely ever been able to notice particularly, though we have occasionally selected the more important essays, we shall take the present opportunity of offering a short account of it. The stupendous buildings of the Romans, particularly their temples, the aqueducts, their roads, and even their sewers, seem to be attempts beyond the reach of the most powerful modern kingdoms, and the means by which they are executed are as excellent as the whole must have been surprising. 'Sunt fata Deum, sunt fata locorum;' but the temples have survived the divinities, and the religion of the pagan world was on a much more frail foundation than the buildings destined to adorn it. The first object of our author's enquiry is the source from whence the ancients could have drawn such immense riches as were requisite to raise these vast monuments of architectural ingenuity. In this part we shall first follow him.

Our wonder is greatly excited by these circumstances, because we consider the subject with modern rather than ancient manners before our eyes. We know nothing of slaves and fiscal servants; even the galley-slaves of other countries, though destined for public works, are too few to allow us to judge what might be their utility. The 'Damnati in opus publicum' at Rome, were, on the contrary, numerous; and we still know their destinations from the ancient code: some were condemned to the mines, others to the separation of the ore, others to the reparation of the roads, clearing the sewers, to the lime-kilns, the sulphur works (sulphuria), the baths, and the quarries. The last circumstance, which we derive from Plautus, suggests to our author some curious comparisons.

‘Inde

‘Inde ibis porro in latomias lapidarias;
 Hi cum alii octonus lapides effodient,
 Nisi quotidianus sesquiopus feceris,
 Sexcento plago nomen indetur tibi.’

Plaut. *Captiv.* III. 5. 65.

The quarriers at Paris, M. Mongez tells us, extract usually ten cubic feet of stone each day, and the Roman foot is smaller by near an inch than the French foot. The octoni lapides, therefore, constitute a small day's work, and the day and half's work is not more than equal to the ten cubic feet of the Paris workmen, nearly equivalent to twelve Roman feet. This reasoning, however, rests on a doubtful foundation. There is no evidence that octoni lapides mean eight cubic feet of stone, and the difference of the texture may make a great variety in the degree of labour required. We learn from Vitruvius, that the Roman stone was in general of a soft texture, and even their marble, when first raised, not hard; and an English quarrier, even in the granite countries, would think eight cubic feet, each day, as no very great exertion. Nor can our author's interpretation of these words be reconciled by his including those, who raised the sand, puozzolane, &c. among the quarriers, though his principal object is, at least, clear, that, from the time of Tarquin, a numerous body of slaves was constantly employed in these labours. Nero, in digging his canal from Misemis to the lake Avernus, and from thence to Ostia, employed criminals condemned to the public works, and even pardoned the most atrocious malefactors to add to their number. When Claudius wished to celebrate, by combats of gladiators, the opening of the lake Fucinus, he found in the prisons nineteen thousand men condemned to death: they were embarked in 100 vessels, to exhibit a naval combat. During the persecutions of the Christians, they were also condemned to labour in all the variety of the public works.

M. Mongez next proceeds to compare the expence of employing the slaves to that of the moderns in paying the workmen. We shall preserve the French calculation, which our readers will observe, is much below the price of labour in England. The masons, and those who hew the stone employed in the church of St. Genevieve, received, one with the other, thirty or thirty-two sous per day, about fifteen pence sterling; and nearly 450 livres per annum (according to the usual calculation of 24 livres to a pound sterling) about 18l. 15s. He next proceeds to the expence of a slave, and takes his foundation from a passage in Seneca's Epistles (Ep. 80), where he describes the affected airs of a slave who, by command of his master, played the part of Atreus. *Ille qui in scena laxius incedit, & haec resupinus dicit,*

Superbus Argi regna mi liquit Pelops
 Quā ponto ab Helles atque Ionio mari
 Urgetur isthmos —

Servus est, *quinque modios accipit & quinque denarios*. Taking the mean value of wheat, and the contents of the modius, as estimated by Panckon, in his Metrology, the utmost extent of the expence amounts only to 134 livres, not one-third of the salary of the modern workman. These are, however, the expences of an ordinary slave; the malefactors, we know, were fed with the commonest food, and cloathed with the coarsest drefs, so that the expence may be reduced one half, and consequently six workmen cost the Roman architect not so much as one modern workman.

This calculation must, however, admit of many deductions. All the workmen were not malefactors, and the overseers must have increased the expence. But the overseers were not numerous: every slave was marked with a letter in the face; and, when he had ran away, with two letters. It is to this that Plautus himself alludes, with an unfeeling levity, *si hic literatus me finat*. The mark was generally indelible, as the wounds of the iron were stained with a black liquor. Caligula thus branded and condemned many respectable citizens; and, among the early Christians, many carried this disgraceful stigma. Constantine forbade it, but Theophilus revived the disgrace in the persecution excited against the defenders of the sanctity of images. On the faces of the martyrs Theodorus and Theophanes, he had the cruelty to imprint twelve verses, the weakness of whose wit excited as much pity for the author as the attempt did indignation at his conduct. Sometimes the emperors ordered an eye to be destroyed, or a leg to be broken, when the malefactor was condemned to the public works, and some of those bishops, who had been delivered by Constantine, carried to the council of Nice such indelible marks of their former sufferings.

That all the ancient workmen were not slaves is proved by numerous inscriptions, which show that different works were erected by the legionary soldiers; but this will not greatly add to the expences, if we even allow that their pay was doubled, a circumstance not proved, and certainly not always the case.

On the other hand, a great number of the materials, employed in the public works, were furnished by certain provinces as tributes or imposts. A law of the Theodosian Code informs us, that Umbria, Picenum, and Campania, sent annually 3000 chariots of lime to Rome. The inhabitants of Etruria furnished 900. Fifteen hundred of these loads were employed about the aqueducts, and the rest destined to other public

public works, under the orders of the prefect. Those who worked the quarries of marble of Numidia and Lybia, as well as proprietors of other mines, paid a particular impost to the emperors. From the example of the proprietors of the lime-kilns, it is probable, that the quarriers paid also a tribute for the public works.

These contributions made the expence easy; but even the expences were not from the public purse. The emperors, who possessed a patrimony of their own, often adorned the city with magnificent buildings, to conciliate the minds of the people. Numerous instances of this kind are recorded: Augustus repaired the Flaminian Way; Nero adorned the houses in many different parts of the city with porticos; Caracalla paved a very long street; Trajan rendered the port at Ancona more safe and accessible. Private citizens were induced by the emperors to add to the magnificence of the city, and the inscriptions, recorded by Smetius, by Gruter, and Muraton, preserve the name of individuals, who repaired or founded public edifices, temples, bridges, colleges, &c. The pro-consuls robbed the provinces with impunity, and brought the riches to Rome: though sometimes compelled to restore a part, they more often purchased their peace by the magnificence of their public ornaments. ‘While I speak, adds the author, of this sort of wealth, which facilitated the construction of these vast monuments, I have no desire of seeing similar ones erected for my fellow-citizens. Simple, modest, buildings, which occasion no regret, and draw not from an allied, or tributary province, a painful recollection, appear greatly preferable to these immense baths, the cloud-capt aqueducts, of which every part is the fruit of the ravages of the two years proconsulship in a vast province. *But it was necessary to reveal the impure source of the Roman riches, because they contributed to the public magnificence.*’

The spirit of conquest, which always animated the descendants of Romulus, justified their conduct in one respect, and added to the grandeur of Rome. Of the spoils of the vanquished the public treasury had at first a larger share than the generals; and, during the republic, this was employed in public decorations. But Augustus, willing to attach the chiefs to his cause, increased their proportion, on condition that they should raise some public monument. Suetonius, Dion, and Tacitus, confirm this arrangement, and the public buildings, raised in consequence of it, appear to have been numerous. These united causes sufficiently explain the source of the magnificence of ancient Rome.

The second part of this very ingenious and learned Memoir

is on the means employed by the ancient architects to raise such stupendous buildings. Accustomed to see edifices raised with hewn stone, and the remains of vast blocks, the moderns have thought that the ancients always followed this method. They have besides supposed that puozzolane was always an ingredient in their cements, and attributed the firmness of the buildings to the regularity of the process, and the choice of materials. The study of the Roman monuments, and the writings of the Roman architects, destroy this system. Vitruvius expressly directs the employment of such materials as each country affords, and points out the peculiar management of the different kinds, particularly showing how to supply the defect of puozzolane in those countries where it is not found. Charcoal, from its indestructible nature, was used for landmarks, and for foundations. Pliny directs ashes to be combined with sand and lime, when charcoal was not to be procured, as a foundation for roads.

Another substance, which enabled the materials to resist the frost, was oil, and this they employed instead of the bitumens of Asia. The oil was used with lime, and the oily cements covered annually, at the approach of the winter, with an oily preparation. The inhabitants of the coast of Coromandel use oil as an ingredient in their stucco, called argamasse; and M. du Fay, in modern times, by this same substance, has revived the knowledge of the means by which the Romans prepared their lime. This preparation seems to have been employed lately in France, to unite the old with the new materials, in the repair of the church of Notre Dame. The method of building in caissons was also undoubtedly Roman. Virgil particularly describes it in speaking of the piles which supported the moles of the famous bridge of Baiae.

‘Qualis in Euboico Bajaram littore quondam
Saxe a pila cadit, magnis quem molibus ante
Constructam jaciunt ponto.’ *Æa. ix. 710.*

Vitruvius, who lived at the same æra with Virgil, particularly describes the construction of these piles, and adds, that these masses must not be moved, till after they have been two months united, that they may be dry. The first modern attempt of this kind seems to have been in Westminster-bridge: the most vast and important one, in the cones at Cherburg.

The bricks were called indifferently lateres, and laterculi; each implying, with the proper epithet, either burned or unburned bricks. The latter were often used by the Romans, who were taught in this respect by the Babylonians. They were forbidden in the construction of houses at Rome, because they

they would contract the streets, as the walls made with bricks of this kind must be very thick. In the country they were allowed with proper precautions. They were made with different mixtures of lime, sand, clay, chalk, pumice-stone, and straw; were two, three, or even four feet in length: the largest, were more than a foot thick, but they were often intermixed with bricks of a smaller size. Such bricks are easily made; and, though Vitruvius directs that they should be dried for two years before they be used, this can occasion no particular delay, since the stone of Italy, when first raised, is so soft, as to require an equal time for hardening. In the bricks they sometimes mixed straw and powdered pumice-stone, which rendered them so light as to float in water. Our author has misinterpreted this passage in Pliny, when he says that they were not penetrated by the water. Such bricks would now be highly useful for vaults and flooring. But one precaution, either in making bricks of this kind, or imitating the Roman cement, should not be neglected, viz. beating the materials very carefully with iron mallets.

Though the duration of these unburnt bricks was, according to Pliny, eternal, if the perpendicular was strictly preserved, yet, about the time of Augustus, they were generally burnt, and mixed with chains of hewn and rough stone, so as to sacrifice in a great measure time and money to appearance. The same clay was moulded by the Roman architects into many different forms, particularly vases, of which they formed arches much lighter and more durable than ours. Various works of this construction remain, and we are told by M. Volney, that the same practice still prevails at Aleppo. The French artists have lately attempted to imitate this structure, but with what success we know not.

The Romans prepared clay also for cornices and roofs. At Pompeia, many of the houses are encircled with bold cornices, made of terra cotta, cast in large pieces. These cornices are ornamented with designs and arabesques; and our author thinks, both from their appearance and use, that they are what Vitruvius means by his 'lorica testacea,' designed to carry the water beyond the walls. Another method of employing clay was in coating the pillars as with a stucco, and the capital answered the purpose of a cornice to carry off the rain. The burnt bricks, moulded into a variety of forms, were used also as a foundation for the Roman roads, where the bottom was clayey, and flints could not easily be procured. The forms are infinitely various, seemingly from accident or fancy, for the bricks were not finished with any care: they were thrown in confusedly, with the cinders and other rubbish of the furnace.

race. Foundations of this kind have been discovered in different places: an instance of it occurred at Marsal in Lorraine. The bas reliefs of the houses were also constructed of burned clay, and were economical ornaments, as they cost only the price of the design and the mould, which might be repeatedly used. Some of these ornaments are so hard, as to strike fire with steel; many are preserved by cardinal Albani in his beautiful villa; some of which Winckelman has described in his 'Monumenti Antichi inediti.'

On many of these bricks, the names of the legions and of the workmen are inscribed; and, when we examine these, we have much reason to complain of the little solidity of our own manufacture. In general, this is owing to too low a degree of heat, to the pyritous mixtures which occasion fusion, and the heterogeneous matters, which the workmen are afraid of converting into glass. This can only be remedied by a more careful choice of the materials, and exciting the emulation of artists, by obliging them to impress their names on the brick.

Genera Insectorum Linnæi & Fabricii iconibus, illustrata a Joanne Jacobi Roemer. 4to. Veloduri Helvetiorum.

WE wish to announce this work, though it cannot furnish any very extensive details or disquisitions: we mention it chiefly on account of its utility, and the merit of its execution. The entomological system of Linnæus is well known: it is singularly neat and comprehensive; and if this place would admit of such discussions, we think we could show that it might be more easily extended than altered. The outline of Linnæus' system is taken from the wings; and insects are divided into three great classes, according as they have four, two, or are wholly without wings: the two last are undivided, under the terms dyptera and aptera. The first is subdivided into those which have the upper wings of a different structure from the under, and those which have all the wings similar. The crustaceæ are those which have the superior wings more hard and brittle, separated by a strait line when closed: the order is styled in the systematic language, coleoptera, the eleuterata of Fabricius. The semi crustaceæ are those in which the upper part of the wing, next the joint, only is brittle, called hemiptera, the ulonata and ryngota of Fabricius. Those which have all the wings of a similar structure, are the insects with sealed wings, lepidoptera, the glossata of Linnæus; and those which have membranous wings, are divided into those which have stings; and those which have none, the europtera and hymenoptera. It must be allowed that these classes are sometimes

too artificial, but this was no reason for changing the whole: a better one is, that the genera are not always well characterised, and the species often improperly combined.

Fabricius was a pupil of Linnæus, and learned from his master to view nature with an accurate, comprehensive eye. He saw the entomological fabric was externally elegant and fascinating, but within irregular, confused, and erroneous. He studied system in the botanical works of his preceptor, and transferred the rules to that of insects, rejecting any very great anxiety to make the classes and orders perfectly natural, and contented with distinguishing the species clearly, ascertaining so near as the state of science would admit, species from varieties, and carefully connecting the specific distinctions with the generic character. His *Philosophia Entomologica*, a work published in 1778, is an excellent proof of the clearness of his views, and the severe accuracy of his discrimination. The consequence has been, that the system of Fabricius has been gradually extending: he has added a mantissa of new discovered animals, and of more correct descriptions or definitions, and, thus giving his system the advantage of keeping pace with new discoveries, has contributed to fix it on as firm foundation as the similar additions of the disciples of the Linnæan school have already established Linnæus' system of botany. We shall, for the sake of more general readers, add the outline of Fabricius' work.

The classes are eight in number; the characters taken from the figure, proportion, and situation of every part of the mouth; chiefly from those parts employed in devouring the food. Of the classes, four are taken from the appearances of the jaw, and four from the description of the mouth. The jaw is either naked and unconnected, *eleuterata*; covered with the galea obtuse, *ulonata*; united with the lip, *synistata*; or the lower jaw is deficient, *agonata*. The mouth is either furnished with maxillæ and feelers, the lower jaw frequently hooked; *unogata*; furnished with feelers and a spiral tongue, *glossata*; with a rostrum, its sheath articulated, *ryngata*; furnished with a sucker, or syphon, its sheath not articulated, *antiliata*.

While there is so great diversity in these systems, and that of Linnæus is by no means forgotten, it is an object of importance to compare them, and to examine the corresponding genera, particularly as a very important entomological work, published in Germany by Sulzer, is arranged wholly according to the system of the Swede. For the assistance of the reader, the genera of Linnæus and Fabricius are inserted with the essential generic characters; those of each naturalist following each other according

according to their respective systems, and some species are added, illustrated with plates, executed with great accuracy, distinctness, and elegance. The plates refer to species; consequently the description of each author is illustrated by it, and the systems are, in some measure, contrasted. At the end is a plate, in which the parts of the mouth, and instruments employed by the animal in devouring its food, on which each order depends, are delineated; but we must add, neither very accurately nor distinctly; though, on the whole, the work deserves considerable approbation, and will be highly useful to students in entomology. In no place has Fabricius explained his terms with sufficient accuracy, nor has our author, in the additional plate, greatly assisted the learner. It is necessary to explain the only technical word used in this Article, *galea*: the term is applied to the upper-lip, when in the shape of a shield.

*Idée générale de la Siberie & de ses Habitans. Par M. Patrin,
de plusieurs Académies.*

THIS memoir, published some time since in the *Journal de la Physique*, we have often alluded to, and promised to give some account of it. Our knowledge of this country is not inconsiderable; but it is confined to works which seldom meet the eye of the English reader, who is almost wholly limited by what Dr. Bell has observed in this part of Asia, and what Mr. Tooke has collected from the narratives of the Russian travellers. ‘The desire of knowing, says M. Patrin, that part of Asia which is called Siberia, and of bringing to my country some useful observations and interesting productions, made me support for eight years the rigours of its forests, to study nature in these regions so near the pole.’

This vast country, so little known in happier climates, contains many rare plants and minerals, of which we have had already some specimens from the attentive and scientific industry of Gmelin, Pallas, and his companions. M. Patrin has added to these imported riches, and we shall follow him in his more general and more particular accounts.

Siberia, it is well known, is separated from the Russian empire by a long chain of mountains, extending from north to south, which are in reality the most natural boundaries interposed between Europe and Asia: they are styled the Rural Mountains, and are emphatically called by the Russians, ‘the Girdle of the Earth.’ Towards the south, Siberia is bounded by numerous groups of mountains, extending from west to east, so far as the confines of China, which are distinguished by different names in their different parts, as Altai, Saiann,

&c. On the north is the icy sea, or the strait which separates Europe from America. The rivers are some of the largest in the world, the Irtish, the Ob, the Yeniffei, the Angara, and the Lena. The north of Asia, from west to east, may be divided, our author tells us, into six districts. First, the space between the rural mountains to the Yeniffei, which is mountainous, or consisting of marshy forests, immense plains, or deserts, whose soil is impregnated, not with natron, as the deserts of Egypt, but with a vitriolated lime or magnesia: the only cultivated spots are the neighbourhood of the rivers, where Tobolsk, Pomsk, and other less considerable cities are situated. The second district is from the Yeniffei to the lake Baikal, a space of about 300 leagues, in which the country is varied by hills stretching from the southern chain. In this region are first discovered the peculiar productions of Asia, and it contains the capital of oriental Siberia, Irkoutz, at a little distance from Baikal, which deserves the name of a sea from its size, as it is 120 leagues long and 25 leagues mean width. To the east of the Baikal is the third country, called Daourie: it is wholly alpine and volcanic, with numerous hills of decomposed lava, whose cavities are filled with chalcedony. The volcanos are so ancient that their craters are obliterated, though there are some more modern, but inconsiderable ones, particularly in the hills which are in the direction of the river Ouda. The part which belongs to Russia, extends northerly to the gulph of Kamtschatka, and to the south so far as the confluence of the Chilea and the Argreenn, which form the river Amour: the rest is subject to the emperor of China. The fourth division is Kamtschatka, which we have formerly described when we followed M. Lefèbvre in his travels*.

* This country is inhabited by Russians and Tartars; but the number, in an extent of 1500 leagues in length by 600 in width, scarcely exceeds 1,200,000 souls, which amounts only to twelve persons in nine square leagues. The Russians resemble entirely those of Moscow: the same manners, the same dress, language, and houses: the nests of swallows are not more alike, as if the influence of an absolute government had checked every kind of emulation, and reduced man to his most general principle, imitation. The Siberian is less a slave than a Russian, for he depends only on the monarch, though the subordinate tyrants are often more formidable than the emperor. In a free government, the Russian might appear with equal advantage, as in the military department, intelligent, active, reflecting, and endowed with a spirit of calculation,

* This work is printed in four volumes, 8vo, entitled *Russia*. See Crit. Rev. vols. *xlii. li. and lvi.*

he might succeed in every pursuit: at present he excels only at chess. The men are robust and vigorous; the women seldom elegantly shaped, but with a beautiful complexion, a seducing tone of voice and manners, can seldom be seen with indifference. In the midst of frost they have a constitution of fire, and the electrical fluid, so copious in their atmosphere, seems to compensate for the sun of the more southern climates. The education of the Russian women is not strict; and, fond as they are of ornaments, from almost their childhood, the price of their charms is said to be employed in gratifying their desires for splendor. Their dress is said chiefly to consist of silks and cottons of the most brilliant colours. They employ neither wool nor flax, though the productions of their country; 'but a Russian woman is a slave, and slaves have no country.' In the districts remote from the great roads, some exceptions are to be found: 'man, who approaches nature, is always good, and he is corrupted in proportion to the extent of his social intercourse.' While our author blames the Russians, he acknowledges their attentions, and their predilection for French manners, and their facility in learning the French, and indeed all other languages. 'The Russian language, which we should suppose as rude as their climate, is soft and flexible, learned with ease, in its construction not unlike the Greek, and, from the number of diminutives, infinitely graceful from a female mouth.' The language of the Tartars is represented, on the contrary, as disgustingly harsh. These people, who are scattered over Siberia in many different hordes, and live under the protection of Russia, may be divided into two different branches: those on the west of Yenissei are Mahometans, apply to agriculture and commerce, are versed in mining and the extraction of metals, speaking a dialect of the Arabic: those on the east are Nomades, idolaters, live in tents, speaking the Mongal language, which is as harsh as their manners are gentle. Those beyond the Russian limits are accused of robbery and murder, but our author is not particularly acquainted with their manners or their merits.

The Mahometan Tartars of the Russian cities inhabit distinct quarters, which are always the best built and the most agreeable. The greater number seem to live easily: their beds are often adorned with coverlets of silk, and their tea is served in elegant and expensive vessels. Though they rarely admit men to visit their women, our author had an opportunity of seeing some of them without veils, who appeared to be beautiful: their husbands were their interpreters, but M. Patrin seemed to have observed a neatness in their answers, a justness of thinking, as well as ease of manners. At Tomsk our author was acquainted with many Tartars, whose candour and honesty left on his mind a pleasing impression.

The eastern Tartars are the Bouraites, the Tongones, and the Mongoles. The different hordes are much alike: they are shepherds, live in tents on milk, and wear the skins of their flocks, which their women prepare with skill. Their religion is said 'to resemble idolatry, like all those where natural beings are worshipped; but they acknowledge a supreme being, like all other religions, because man in every situation has nearly the same ideas more or less expanded.' Their chief is the Delai Lama, the priest and sovereign of an extensive country, on the frontiers of China, with the nature of whose pretensions and government we have had opportunities of being lately better acquainted. Their lamas, M. Patrin, with his usual complaisance, tells us, are better informed than we might expect; and many of them reason with an accuracy that would astonish those who suppose that reasoning is only learned in the schools.

' I have seen on the hills which rise over the deserts, that the Tartars inhabit the places of prayer, a kind of temple in all the rude simplicity of nature. They are cones about thirty feet in height, formed by an assemblage of young pines transported from the neighbouring forests, around which the skins of animals are suspended. These are offerings made to the supreme being, but superstition, so natural to man, soon made them objects of adoration. I see nothing very extraordinary in this, but I was particularly struck with an emblem by which they express the immensity of the supreme being, whom they call the Great Bang. Wherever I observed their religious monuments, I saw, extending from the cone, four ranges of piled stones, some hundreds of toises in length, in the direction of the four cardinal points. This was not the effect of chance; I often verified them with the compass in my hand. I asked a lama what they signified. Does not the Great Being, he replied, breathe from the different quarters of the universe, and must we not reply to his almighty breath by our prayers? Look at these prayers, they are written. I actually saw some letters traced, and the idea appeared sublime.'

To religious sentiments so grand and simple, the Tartars join the most austere manners. During his whole residence with them, our author never saw any thing to raise a blush on the chaste cheek. The Russians, though less discreet, respect this severity, and the stranger, who would affront a woman, would pay the forfeit of his life. Adultery is very rare among them, and it is punished in such a manner, as, without apparent cruelty, to inspire dread. The culprits are dragged to the centre of the forest, and left with a bow and arrows, but without a horse; and thus abandoned to their destiny, for the Tartar, used to riding, cannot walk far, and the exiles are never found to return. ' Perhaps, adds our author, if the similar offenders

offenders in our own country were obliged to live constantly together without any other society, the punishment would appear more dreadful than death.'

Notwithstanding the severity of their manners, the Tartars are hospitable. 'In every place I was treated as a friend; and I loved to live in their tents: I breathed there the air of liberty.' The fondness of the Tartars for strangers arises from the curiosity natural to this race: they love novelty, and observe with attention and accuracy Our author's herbal, and his evening employment of arranging his plants, was examined with a respectful attention: they considered them as offerings to the Great Being. The notes annexed to the fossils and vegetables were supposed to be prayers; nor would they be convinced of the contrary when undeceived. Properly represented, this might be considered as a refined satire, and a Tartarian lama might draw an excellent lesson from the futility of such anxious attention paid exclusively to the transitory objects of this lower world. The following dialogue is curious and characteristic.

M. Patrin went into a Tartar tent, near the river Amour, to drink his tea, and saw an old man and a young woman broiling some meat. 'I was curious to taste it, doubting what it might be, and asked the young woman for a part. She smiled and replied, speaking the Russian language imperfectly, "this is not good for you." Surprised at the refusal, contrary to their custom, I asked the reason. "It is horse-flesh," she answered.—"Well, it is of no consequence, I wish to taste it."—"What (said the old man with much astonishment,) you are not a Russian then?" "No, I am a Frenchman." "Thy country then is far from hence, for I never heard of it, and it must be poor, as thou comest so far for food." "No, no, my friend, my country is excellent, and unites many advantages: it is curiosity alone that brought me here to examine the stones of your mountains and the plants of your deserts."—"Oh, Oh, (cried the old man) the Russians say that the Tartars are curious, but the French seem much more so—are there not many Tartars in France?"

The wandering life of these Nomades is adapted for the chace, and makes one of their principal occupations; but they scarcely quit the plains: they cannot climb the mountains, where the finest sables are found. The Russian exiles were formerly employed in this task; but the precious animals are so rare, that their labour is found more valuable in the mines. Some free Russians still pursue this prey; and, from a desire of gain, voluntarily embrace a mode of life to which no tyrant would dare to condemn them. 'With a sack of flour, a little salt, and a kettle to dress these miserable aliments, two snow-shoes, a carbine, and a tinder-box, the hunter sets out in the middle of the winter, when the furs are finest and most valuable.'

luable. He buries himself three months in the most desert and frightful solitudes, traverses rocks and precipices, exposed by day to a cold of which we can have no idea in these climates, and passing the night in the tents, covered with snow, where he is shut up as in a tomb.' The cold of Siberia is little inferior to that which freezes mercury, and sometimes surpasses it. M. Patrin describes the respiration in this degree of cold, as if the lungs were filled with boiling oil, and even in the closest carriages, this very acute air almost suffocates. The extremes of cold, in almost all their effects on the body, resemble those of heat.

The summer is still worse : the marshes exhale a pestilential odour of sulphur ; the road is obstructed by rivers highly dangerous ; legions of insects torment day and night both man and horse ; a sharp salt dust, as black as coal, produced from the turfey soil of this country, fills the air, irritates the lungs, and inflames the eyes, so that the greater part of the inhabitants are almost blind. The flies often infest men and horses with their united fury ; but in general they have their distinct times of appearing. The gnats come on with the sun, bite sharply, and fill the eyes, nose, mouth, and ears. At ten is the time of the midges ; and they fix on the horses, so that their brilliant wings appear like shining scales coving the tortured animal. At four the gnats appear again, and are succeeded at sun-set by the gad-flies, almost as distressing by their buzzing noise as by their stings. We shall conclude our Article with the author's advice to the young naturalist who may wish to travel in these inhospitable regions.

' Courage, young man, who art zealous in the study of Nature, and wish to examine her own works, the only ones which never deceive ! Approach the western entrance of Siberia : you will have scarcely traversed the rural mountains, when, in turning southward, you will find Orembourg : you will there find the Bucharian merchants who bring to this mart the productions of their country, and the north of India. Sometimes the Indian merchants come with them : all understand the Russian language, which, in travelling through the country, you will have already acquired, since it is so easy. You will join the caravans of the Eucharians and those Indians, who are the gentlest of men : with them, by easy and safe journeys, you will travel through countries yet unvisited but by the English couriers who carry dispatches to the government of India : these happy countries, where Nature, always alive and active, will present more new objects in each degree of latitude, than I have met with in 115 degrees of longitude. You will return with your hands filled with new treasures, enrich your country by the most valuable knowledge, and merit its esteem, the most pleasing recompence for a true citizen.'

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

THE second volume of the *Histoire de France, représentée par Figures*, the engravings by M. David, the discourses by M. l'abbe Guyot, has appeared at Paris in 4to. M. David has already distinguished himself by an engraved History of England, by his *Antiquities of Herculaneum, Etruscan Antiquities*, and *Museum of Florence*. The abbe Guyot has shewn considerable talents and elocution in displaying those portions of history which are proper for a work of this kind.

The character of Childeric III. the last monarch of the first race, may give the reader some idea of our author's manner. 'Debased by pleasure, Childeric seemed to lose nothing, when he descended from the throne, and hardly did he retain a slight sensation of his former dignity. A kind of moral decrepitude had prepared his fall; and the king was so naturally extinguished in him, that at the moment when he was stripped of his royalty, he scarcely perceived his descent to private life. Force had occasioned the greatness of Clovis, religion had consecrated it: force stripped his descendant, and the abuse of religious principles applauded the usurper who degraded them. Thus commonly kings, as well as empires, describe and limit their own circles.'

This volume closes with the fall of the second race, a chief cause of which event was the system of hereditary feuds. M. Guyot's picture of the feudal system well merits transcription. 'Let us imagine, says he, a star which, being at first solitary, draws imperiously along with it in its revolution all the surrounding space; which afterwards suffering to escape a considerable portion of the elements which compose it, gives birth to inferior stars, that form particular revolutions without quitting the general circle. Let us imagine that, by a successive emanation, new stars are produced from the others, which have also their separate motion, although drawn on by their superior stars; and that, by a new subdivision, those give birth to others of less importance, which in the complication of

divers revolutions also follow their circle, as so many stars which are attended by their satellites. In this image may be naturally traced all those classes of nobles, the one created by the other, having each in its gradual subordination its proper activity, and still depending on the monarch, as all the stars on the solar influence, yet receiving no impulsion but such as is general for all the monarchy. In this image may be found the idea of the superior and inferior fiefs, and of that too famous system of politics, the confusion of the primitive order of the state, the destruction of the royal power ; in which kings, deprived of money and soldiers, reduced to subsist on the productions of their domains, and to carry on their private wars with the men of their own lands, without favours to grant, and almost without laws to promulgate, were necessarily at every step to meet with disloyalty and disobedience. Such is feudalism ; not the work of a written law, but, as was then said, the daughter of time, and the necessary result of the weakness of kings.'

The Bibliotheque de l'Homme Public, by M. Condorcet, proceeds regularly, but unless some very interesting article appears, we shall not give any particular account of a work which may be regarded as periodical.

A poem by M. de Cubieres, intituled *Les Etats Generaux de l'Europe*, presents much wholesome instruction to modern monarchs ; but the cup presented by a democrat must appear poisonous. The several kings are supposed to appear in a council, the president of which is the good abbe de Saint Pierre, and the secretaries Rousseau, Mably, and Raynal. None escape some satire, except the Polish monarch, who is thus characterised :

‘ De la philosophie ardent et ferme apôtre,
Ce Poniatowski n'est pas roi comme un autre :
La liberté l'enflamme ; et du peuple François
En langage Sarmate il traduit les decrets.’

So generous, so great is the character of this king, that while the Saxon elector insults Poland with delays, that kingdom must be ungrateful if she do not elevate to her hereditary throne her chief benefactor.

The ‘Observations sur l’Amenagement des Forêts,’ presented to the national assembly by the royal society of agriculture, form a most interesting pamphlet, especially while the state of our own forests attracts the attention of the legislature. But the minuteness of the details, and the connected nature of the whole tract, admits not of any extracts.

M. Fabre d’Eglantine’s *Convalescent de Qualité, ou l’Aristocrate Moderne*, a comedy in two acts, proceeds on an improbable plot, but has many forcible points.

A singular volume on divorce has been published at Paris in 8vo. under the title of *Petition à l'Assemblée Nationale par Montaigne, Charron, Montesquieu, et Voltaire, suivie d'une consultation en Pologne et en Suisse*. The author argues strongly for greater liberty of divorce, on the authority of these eminent men, and upon the usages of Poland and of Switzerland.

The comedy of M. Fabre, called *Isabella de Salisbury*, is founded on the institution of the order of the garter; and has been acted with a profusion of decorations, and with applause.

Paul et Virginie, a comedy in three acts, in prose, mixed with songs, is founded on the amiable work of M. Saint Pierre, and has great merit.

Abdelazis et Zuleima, a tragedy in five acts, by M. de Merville, has been acted at Paris with applause. The fourth act in particular abounds with beautiful passages.

M. Delandine's work, *De quelques changemens Politiques, &c.* or treatise on some political changes, accomplished, or only projected, in France, during the years 1789, 1790, and 1791, being a discourse on several points of the constitution, and of the new legislation of the kingdom, is the production of a moderate writer. The author was one of the deputies to the constituent assembly; and here gives us his opinions freely on the events which passed under his eye. His bias, however, leans against the new constitution.

The work is divided into twenty sections, of which the first, presenting preliminary ideas, delineates the author's character in an interesting manner, and gives a favourable idea of the principles which have dictated this production. ' Happy without doubt, says our author, is the sage who, having it in his power to be more known, yet consents to live in obscurity. Happy above all he who, shunning political storms, preserves religiously in the bottom of his heart, a respect for order, the love of his country, and of his king. In the midst of a family by whom he is beloved, of books which instruct him, of the pictures of nature so various and affecting, he may escape envy, be the consolator of his fellow-creatures, forget their ingratitude, enjoy labour and repose, cultivate his fields and his friendships, sow with flowers his garden and his life, taste the delights of study and of the arts, abandon ambition for more tender sentiments, and never quit his wife and his children.

' This happiness was my share, and it will be again. No, I shall not again behold you without transport, you whom I did not leave without a painful effort. I have left you to consider a great spectacle: I have yielded to the imperious desire of being useful. Near three years have elapsed in giving to France a new constitution and legislation. During that period

I have beheld the tempests of party, and the profound undulation of a government, changed in all its parts. I have often seen the reciprocal shocks of pride determine the fate of the people; and still more often the sincerest and most ardent wishes to secure their ease and happiness.'

Our limits will not permit us to enter upon the various subjects discussed in this work, on some of which the author adopts the principles of the constituent assembly, and upon others freely expresses his dissent. From the twentieth discourse, which relates to the utility of literary societies, we shall present an extract or two :

' The man of letters, solitary amid his books, detached from society in his cabinet, soon bursts asunder the bonds which civil life would impose upon him. He cannot submit to that domestic servitude, to those attentions of every moment, to that daily occupation called the practice of the world. He has not time to learn futile incidents, and news of a day, which neither impart useful intelligence to his mind, nor generous sentiments to his heart. He is bound to society by few ties, and yet he is placed in the midst of it; so that all jostle and hurt him. If, wounded, he wishes to complain, his voice is often unheard and lost. Is an injustice done him? Our literary man, who is ignorant of the art of solicitation, and who has no protectors but his rights, remains astonished that he is sacrificed. He, observes Voltaire, who exercises a profession is sustained by his brethren, but the man of letters has no assistance. Like a flying fish, if he rises a little the birds devour him, if he plunge he is the prey of larger fish. But if a literary man be united to a learned society, he is no longer a stranger in his country, his connections are increased; he has the same character, but is beheld with other eyes; less injured, more encouraged, he may in peace pursue his labours, and render them useful to his country.'

M. Delandine proceeds to shew the other advantages of literary societies; and among many valuable remarks presents the following :

' How many men of talents have been lost in the common crowd, because they have not found men of letters to support them with their strength, to assist them in their projects, or to console them in their adversity. Like Mabillon who, unenlightened and weak in his youth, acquired no vigour of intellect till a violent fall had dashed his head against a stone, some men have occasion to be electrified, so to speak, by an extraneous body, before their strength can be displayed. Thus Leibnitz became a poet: thus a violent commotion in the government gave birth to the talents of Milton; and the emotion excited by a problem, proposed by a provincial academy, produced

duced the masculine eloquence of Rousseau, and became the origin of his immortal works.'

A most useful little tract of M. Beraud, professor of mathematics at Marseilles, has appeared at Aix in Provence, published by order of the administration of the Mouths of the Rhone. It is intituled 'Memoire sur la Maniere de resserrer le Lit des Torrents, et des Rivieres,' or a memoir on the Manner of contracting the Bed of Torrents and Rivers. The author demonstrates the pernicious effects of stone embankments, which, by constraining the waters too much, operate their own ruin; and then proceeds to lay down his new plan.

' In order, says he, to discover the most simple and advantageous manner of constantly restricting torrents and rivers to their bed, we must study nature on the banks of running waters; and we shall soon observe that the most feeble obstacles almost always produce the greatest changes in their direction. Small trees, brush-wood, tufted plants, which cover the banks of small rivers, are, as we see, sufficient to confine them. A tree, which the waters have bent into their current, will restrict their course, if not disrooted. I am informed by one of my friends that the gardens of Orgon have owed their preservation, for some years, only to a large fig-tree, which the Durance overturned into its current, and of which the branches, by the opposition which they afford to the swiftness of the stream, contribute to force off its violence. If isles be rarely injured by the waters which cover them in floods, is not this owing to the shrubs and underwood which protect them?— Hitherto great means have only produced small effects. Let us shew that the contrary may be accomplished; that is to say, let us use only small means, and operate great changes in the courses of rivers.'

M. Beraud then explains his method, which is to chuse a point, firm and out of the power of the water, as a rock, or a natural elevation of the earth. If none be found, a method after mentioned must be followed. Plant, parallel to the current of the water, many ranks of aquatic trees, about a fathom distant from each other. Begin this plantation at the extremity of the cultivated land, or on a spot where the waters at their greatest height have not power to overturn it. Two or three years after give a blow with an axe to each tree, about two or three feet from the ground, so as to cut it half through, and to make it lie perpendicular to the course of the stream. Continue to plant every year on the same place, and to lay all the trees which are three years old. Whence every year there will be many ranks to lay; and, by planting on both sides, the waters will be constrained to the middle of the bed, and will only occupy the space necessary for their elapse. The branches do not prevent the waters from extending, but impede the stream,

stream, and force it to deposit its gravel, sand, and mud : thereby raising the soil, into which they root themselves, and produce new plants, all of great vigour. The earth, soon traversed in all its parts by an infinity of roots, becomes, as it were, en-chained; and will form, so to speak, only one mass, not capable of any injury from the stream. Every year the falling leaves, mingling with the mud left by the floods, contribute to prepare insensibly a soil excellent for agriculture.

If the banks be infirm, as composed of sand or gravel easily displaced, too much haste must not be used in forming plantations : but after laying two or three ranks of trees, time must be given for their branches to rise, and cover all the spot before more are planted. One must advance slowly, and present an equal resistance, else the waters may corrode the soil and undermine the trees.

When the shore presents no fixed point, under the shelter of which the plantations may be begun, one must be formed by art. The author recommends a strong bank of earth, to run from the cultivated land, or a spot above the floods, right into the stream : it must be well beat down in strata of a foot in thickness. When this bank is extended to the length designed, it must be terminated in the form of a T, the cross-bar being parallel to the direction of the waters. Its height must necessarily surpass about two feet the ascent of the highest floods.

The novelty and importance of this plan have induced us thus to give the outlines ; but for more particular details, and proofs from experience of its utility, we must refer to the tract itself.

ITALY.

A work intituled *Della Costruzione de' Theatri, &c.* or, *On the Construction of Theatres according to the Practice of Italy*, that is, divided into small boxes, by count Francisco Riccati of Trivigi, has appeared at Bassano, in 4to, with three plates. The author is known by several learned productions on architecture ; and the present valuable little work forms only a part of a more considerable design, which occupies his attention, and which extends to all the provinces of civil architecture. This tract is divided into three parts, besides a preface and an introduction. In his preface the author observes, that the want of a complete Tuscan dictionary, containing all the words relative to his subject, has constrained him to use some Lombardic and Venetian terms, of which he gives explanations. The introduction shews how much easier it was for the Roman architects to build theatres in which all the spectators had an equal view of the stage, as they did not disdain to sit on ranges of benches, which surrounded the pit ; and

and with how much less difficulty foreign architects may construct theatres in their manner than in that of Italy, which presents boxes of different plans, divided, and close, not open like a gallery. But the Italian ladies not being willing to abandon these small boxes, very commodious to them, though prejudicial to the harmony and elegance of the structure; and fashion overcoming every other consideration, the architect can only moderate the system.

The first part concerns the proper species of curve to be used in describing that part of the theatre allotted to the spectators, so as to facilitate their view of the stage. The second points out improvements in the auditory province, calculated to promote the circulation of sound from the stage and the orchestra. The third delineates the complete plan of a theatre, with our author's improvements. But as the plates and minute descriptions become necessary to understand the several improvements, we shall only further observe that eminent skill is displayed in the work, which may be particularly recommended to the attentive perusal of those concerned in the construction of theatres.

From the Florentine press has issued a singular work, by Alexander de Sanctis, intituled *Delle Passioni e Vizi dell' Intelletto, &c.* or, a Treatise on the Passions and the Vices of the Intellect, 12mo. Who would expect to find in this work an apology for the *Bucolics* and *Georgics* of Virgil? The treatise on the passions and the vices of the intellects occupies 106 pages; and forms a kind of introduction to the other, including institutes of elementary logic, or of the art of criticism.

The titles of the chapters, by our author denominated tables, are a little uncommon; for example, Of deceit arising from the intellect not being divided. Of an increasing judge. Of a diminishing judge. Of a weary judge. Of a stupid judge, &c. The examples of the passions and of the characters of intellects are derived from the council of devils in the Malmantile. But the defence of Virgil against twenty-three censures, is ingeniously conducted. Another volume, apologising for the *Aeneid*, is expected.

At Naples has appeared, in six octavo volumes, the *Storia Critica de' Teatri antici e moderni, &c.* or, a Critical History of Theatres ancient and modern, by Pietro Napoli Signorelli. It is an enlargement of a work originally forming only one 8vo. volume, and printed in 1777. The author points out many improvements in the intellectual influence of the theatre. His first volume treats of the ancient theatres, particularly the Grecian: the second explains the changes in the Roman, till the incursion of the barbarians; the third displays the revival of the drama, and its progress till the fifteenth century. In

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the fourth the history is extended to the more civilised foreign kingdoms; in the fifth the history of the French stage in the last and the present century is given, with some account of the theatres of more northern countries; the sixth concerns the state of the Spanish and Italian stage in the present century.

Dr. Pignotti's *Favole e Novelle*, or *Fables and Novels*, have been so favourably received that seven editions have appeared. Purity of language, and an easy versification, recommend this little book to those who wish to study Italian.

The sixth volume of Tiraboschi's valuable *Storia della Letteratura Italiana*, *History of Italian Literature*, a new edition revised, corrected, and enlarged by the author, has appeared at Modena in 4to.

Father Riccardi's *Curiosita Filosofiche e Teologiche, &c.* Philosophical and Theological Curiosities concerning Man, printed at Vicenza in 8vo. have excited the ridicule of the Italian journalists. Questions relating to the formation of Eve, and the birth of Antichrist, the dress of Enoch and Elias when they shall fight Antichrist, &c. &c. are little adapted to the taste of the eighteenth century.

Signior Zatta has begun to publish his Portraits of the illustrious Men of Italy, accompanied with the eulogies of the abbe Rubbi. This work is deserving of a favourable reception.

The abbe Sestini has added to numismatic science by his *Dissertazione sopra Alcune Monete, &c.* or, Dissertation on some Armenian coins of the race of Rupen, in the collection of sir Robert Ainsley, printed at Leghorn in 4to. This author was already celebrated for his researches on the Greek coins of the islands in the Archipelago, and of many towns in Asia; and has now turned his attention to the Armenian coins of the last monarchs of that nation, being the fourth dynasty, denominated Rupenic. The uncertainty concerning the history of Armenia our learned abbe has endeavoured to remove, chiefly on the authority of two recent works published at Venice; the one being an abridgment of Armenian history in Italian, the other an Armenian history in the language of the country. About the year 800 before Christ, the Armenian monarchy began in the person of Baruyr, and ended in the year of the Incarnation 1375. The first dynasty, named Haycana, lasted above 400 years; the second, called Armeno-partha, or Arsa-cidica, began after an interval of 200 years, and lasted to the year of Christ 428: the third, called Bocaradic, began in the year 859, and closed in 1080; the fourth, or Rupenic, commenced in 1080 and ended in 1375. Nine coins are engraven of Leo II. Otho I. Leo IV. Otho II. Thoros III. Simbato, and Constantine II. and are illustrated by a chronological account of this dynasty.

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The pseudonymous tract intituled *Theotimi Eupistimi de Doctis Catholicis viris, &c.* or, an Account of those learned Catholics who, since the year 1580, have retracted Writings of theirs, printed at Rome 1791, is not ill-written. Fenelon, Montesquieu, and Helvetius, are among the examples.

PORTUGAL.

Our defect of information concerning Spanish and Portuguese literature we regret; and should be happy if any learned correspondent would enable us to supply it. Endeavours on our part have not been wanting; and though it is believed that a literary Journal, called the *Memoria Literaria*, is still published at Madrid, we have not been able to procure recent Numbers.

At Lisbon two works of consequence have been lately published. The one is entitled *Memorias, &c.* Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Lisbon, established to promote the progress of agriculture, arts, and industry in the kingdom of Portugal, and in its settlements, vol. i. This production is a favourable omen of the revival of solid science in that country. The other work bears the title of *Colleçao, &c.* a Collection of Memoirs for the History of Portugal; drawn from manuscripts hitherto unknown, printed at the press of the academy, two volumes, folio. These volumes throw new light upon many events.

GERMANY.

Mr. George Förster has published a German translation of the Indian drama called *Sacontalá**; from the English, with curious notes on Indian mythology and manners.

Lorsbach's *Archiv für die Morgenländische Litteratur, &c.* Archives for Eastern Literature, Marburg, 1791, 8vo. vol. i. contains several curious articles, particularly an extract from the Syriac chronicle of Barheber.

Alzingen's *Biomberix ein ritter-gedicht*; or *Biomberix*, a poem of chivalry, in twelve cantos, Leipsic, 8vo. is regarded as a production of eminent merit, distinguished by a bold vein, and rich imagination. The ninth canto is particularly admired. But the author is blamed for subjecting himself to the yoke of rhyme, in a language already delivered from that bondage.

A small but interesting tract, by Dr. Reimarus, has been printed at Hamburg, entitled *Die Freyheit, &c.* the Free-

* See Crit. Rev. Vol. I. New Ar. p. 18.

dom of Commerce in Grain, estimated by nature and history. The author produces the remarks of the late beneficent emperor Leopold II. tending to show, from experience, that the corn-trade ought in all countries to be absolutely free, and unfettered by any regulations whatever. The infallible consequences are plenty, and the rapid advance of agriculture and national prosperity.

Pezzl's *Skizze von Wien*, or *Picture of Vienna*, in six parts, 8vo. is an imitation of Mercier's *Tableau de Paris*. The author's style is not so picturesque as that of his model; but he gives many curious details; and a translation might be acceptable.

Of Beekman's *Bietræge*, &c. *Memoirs for a History of Discoveries*, the third part of the third volume has appeared at Leipzig. This work has been favourably received.

Hacquet's *Reise*, &c. *Journey to the Noric Alps, Nurenburg*, 8vo. is, like his other productions, full of curious and interesting matter. Topography, chemistry, botany, rural œconomy, and the history of man, furnish their proportion of information.

The *Nachtrag*, &c. or *Supplement to the fourth edition of an Account of the German Literati*, printed at Lemgo, 8vo. has its value. The number of living German literati is now calculated at 7000, while twenty years ago it was only estimated at 3000. Yet some of the provinces are still under the level of this enlightened century.

H O L L A N D.

De Zedelyke Toestand, &c. or *the Moral State of the Belgic People*, towards the End of the eighteenth Century, by Ysband van Hameveld, Amsterdam, 8vo. is a useful work. It is divided into twelve sections: 1. Preliminary discourse; 2. What is worthy of praise or of blame in the Low Countries; 3. Manners of the inhabitants in general; 4. Education; 5. Youth; 6. Marriage; 7. Oeconomy; 8. Social virtues; 9. Sciences, and national taste; 10. Public worship; 11. Particularities; 12. General review, perspective of the future, salutary advices.

A continuation of Wagenaer's *History of the United Provinces*, forming the fifth part of the work, Amsterdam, 8vo, contains a history of Holland, from the commencement of the American war to the peace.

Engel's *de Kunt*, &c. *Art of Imitation by Gestures*, part i. *Harlem*, 8vo. explains the gesticulation of eloquence, and that of pantomime.

D E N.

DENMARK.

The work of Niel Morville, intituled *Geometriske och Economiske, &c.* the Geometrical and Economical Division of Lands, Copenhagen, 1791, 4to. with plates, has a considerable claim to utility. To unite geometry with agriculture, and to shew that geometry, and even algebra, may be of great advantage to rural oeconomy, is an object worthy of attention. The author of this production, having been employed by the Danish government in many labours of this kind, writes with great skill: and his book shews, that in Denmark that useful science, which nourishes and preserves states, begins to attract deserved attention.

In the *Aufzug der Schriften, &c.* Extracts from the Acts of a Commission of Agriculture, instituted to re-establish the rights of the peasants, Copenhagen, 1791, 2 vols. 8vo. we find a laudable instance of the attentions of the prince of Denmark to the grand interests of the kingdom. There was occasion for the power of this celebrated prince to effect the grand design of overturning feudal barbarism, and of restoring the peasantry to the rank of freemen: the glorious exertion will secure him a fame far superior to the sanguinary triumphs of war.

Under the auspices of count Bernstorff, and of the royal Norwegian Society of Sciences, Dr. Thorkelin is about to publish the ancient laws of Norway and Iceland. A large body of Icelandic annals, from the birth of Christ to the middle of the thirteenth century, and the fourth volume of the new edition of Snorro, will probably appear about the month of September next. The chevalier Bulow, marshal to the prince, has at his own expence sent a gentleman, well versed in natural history and in drawing, into the interior parts of Africa: and the accounts already received are interesting. The Danish press remains completely free.

SWEDEN.

Few books of consequence have been recently published in this country. The late monarch imposed heavy fetters upon the press; and even forbade the importation of all pamphlets and periodical works, in which the French revolution was mentioned. Swedish literature has for some years chiefly consisted in operas, comedies, and poetry in general. In such toys the late despot occupied his people: remembering the remark of Tacitus, that tyranny is best established by enticing the subjects to the allurements of luxury. It is, indeed, risible to see

the French Journals full of accounts of Swedish plays, and silent as to any manly or rational production of that kingdom.

PRUSSIA.

The first part of Moritz's *Annalen der Academie der Künste, &c.* or *Annals of the Academy of Arts and Mechanic Sciences* at Berlin, is printed at that capital in 8vo. These annals are destined to collect not only the discoveries of the academy, but any information concerning the history of arts, and the design of perfection to which they were carried by the ancients. This part contains eleven articles: 1. Monuments of the history of art in Prussia; 2. Discourse of Heinitz, the minister of state, on the introduction of the new regulation into the academy; 3. Answer, in the name of the academy, by professor Moritz; 4. On two edifices, each of one stone, drawn from the Egyptian quarries, and transported on the Nile to Sais and Butos; 5. On the ancient porcelain of Egypt; 6. Description of Brandenburg gate, now building at Berlin; 7. Institution of the Academy of Arts at Petersburg; 8. Letter on the work intituled an *Essay on Taste*; 9. Answer; 10. Project of maps less expensive than the present: the secret consists in using wood instead of copper; and a happy specimen by Unger is given; 11. Extracts of letters by the vice-director, Chodoneiecky. The typographical part does honour to the press of Unger.

Count Schmettau's work, *Ueber den Feldzug, &c.* on the Campaign of the Prussian Army in Bohemia, 1778, under the command of the late king in person, Berlin, 4to. with plates, present not only instructive remarks on that war, but a history of it. The author shews that the principal causes of inactivity in that campaign were, on the one side, the great age and infirmities of Frederic II. and, on the other, the extreme prudence of the enemy, occasioned by the reputation of that eminent leader. Count Schmettau, however, is far from being a flatterer of his hero. He points out many instances of the king's injustice to his officers, and to the people of the country. In throwing a glance on the war of seven years, he discovers several faults in the conduct of Frederic, who certainly owed much to fortune; and often did his best officers disapprove of his measures. In reading with attention the history of the campaign 1778, one cannot avoid finding many traces of that intention of seeking death in it, which is ascribed to the king. At Welsdorf he remained exposed for half an hour to the fire of

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he Tyrolian chasseurs; and it was necessary to give orders to expel them, unknown to him. At Hermansfeisen he manifestly sought danger: and at Leopolt he chose a lodgment, separated from the rest of his camp, and within 1500 paces of the enemies batteries. 'I must confess, says our author, that I trembled in seeing all the danger to which the king was exposed, in a house almost solitary, and where he could neither enter, nor go out, without being seen from the advanced posts of the foe.'

In Mr. Dresel's book, *Bemerkungen, &c.* Remarks made in a Journey into Brandenburg and Saxony, to the Confines of Franconia, Berlin, 8vo. may be found great impartiality, philosophical views, and a picturesque style, which render it interesting, in spite of the minute details in which the author appears sometimes to be lost. The difference between the two adjacent countries is very striking. In Brandenburg the people are in general rough, unpolished, and reserved, in Saxony they are polished, obliging, frank, and communicative. The Saxon dialect is classical in the German language. In Brandenburg great labour is used in bringing uncultivated lands into use: in Saxony the people are content to enjoy gaily what they have, without concerning themselves much in the acquisition of riches. In the former few murmurs are heard: in the latter loud and free complaints are uttered against the taxes and the administration. The roads are kept in good order in Brandenburg, while they are shamefully neglected in Saxony.

A third Memoir of Mr. Erman's Historical Eulogy of Sophia Charlotte of Hanover, queen of Prussia, has appeared at Berlin, 8vo. In speaking of Frederic I. he observes that a feeble constitution, and delicate habit of body, denied to his mind those resources of activity and strength, which react on the thoughts, and in some degree communicate vigour to them. The appellation of Wise aptly characterises him; while that of Great belongs to the indefatigable heroism of his father. Sophia Charlotte added to his court all the graces of her sex, with a mind adorned by every accomplishment, and an exquisite taste. The present king of Prussia, upon seeing the two former Memoirs of our author, condescended to communicate to him twenty-two original letters of this princess, which do honour to her feelings and her wit. They are written in French, with great ease and spirit; the princess was so great a mistress of that tongue, that an illustrious French refugee, upon quitting her presence, enquired of an attendant whether she understood German.

Count Hertzberg's *Memoire sur les Revolutions des Etats, &c.* Memoir on the Revolutions of States, external, internal, and religious, read at the academy of Berlin, on the 6th of October, 1791, Berlin, 8vo. is worthy of its author's reputation.

R U S S I A.

Of Hupel's *Versuch, &c.* Essay on the political State of Russia, the first volume has appeared at Riga, in 8vo. Notwithstanding the modest title of this work, it is the most complete, and the best digested, yet offered to the public upon this subject. In this first volume the author treats of the different subdivisions of this great empire, of the climate, population, and culture of each province; of the classes and distinctions established among the inhabitants; of the public and civil law; of the imperial family; of the court, the army, the finances, the national industry, commerce, and in fine, of the relations between Russia and other European powers. Mr. Hupel has employed thirty years in collecting materials for this work; and as no access can be procured to the Russian archives, it is only by his connections with the ministers, and subordinate officers of government, that he has been enabled to procure them. The difference between the nations which constitute this empire is not so great as that between a noble and his vassals: the chapter on servitude is far from being dictated by the prejudices of the country. That on the political interest of Russia is not a dream of the author, but the real plan of the Russian ministry, since the time of Peter the Great.

Friebe's *Handbuch, &c.* Manual of the History of Livonia, Estonia, and Courland, vol. i. printed at Riga, 8vo. has merit. The author begins at the period when the Phoenicians commenced a traffic in Livonia for amber; and this first volume extends to the year 1439. The origin and exploits of the ancient Vandals are explained: at every change of government the manners of the inhabitants are described; and a topography of these countries is given as they were in the thirteenth century. An extract from the memoirs of the count de Melm, which our author has inserted, has been favourably received by the learned. In this extract convincing proofs are adduced that the Livonian tongue is only a corrupt dialect of the Finnish or Estonian. The people of Estonia denominate themselves by the same term which they apply to the Fins, that is *Rahvast*; the name of Estonians being unknown among them. The appellative Livonia is derived from the Finnish word

word Luvane, which signifies sand; and is well appropriated to that sandy country. Count de Melm is occupied in a new Atlas of Livonia, in which will appear a map of the country, as it was before the year 1562, with a description of what was then remarkable.

Friebe's Beytrage, &c. Memoirs for the History of Livonia, taken from a MS. newly discovered by Mr. Friebe, with other materials for northern history, collected by Mr. Hupel, Riga, 8vo. The manuscript in question was written about the year 1640, by Melchior Fuchs, burgomaster of Riga, and principally relates to the disputes between that city and the archbishop. From the author's quotations it is evident that he availed himself of several ancient documents now lost. The editor gives an extract, extending from 1360 to 1489, which throws much light on an obscure part of Livonian history.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Anecdotes of the Life of the Right Hon. William Pitt, Earl of Chatham. (Concluded from p. 389.)

THE other circumstances of the peace are humiliating to the nation, and unpleasing to reflect on. If, as our author contends, the first treaty in this reign was the renewal of the former one with Prussia, and the first step in making the peace the declaration of the principles and spirit of the treaty, we can only regret the inconsistency of the minister, and join in the general reprehensions. The Manilla ransom was not secured; but this reminds us of an omission, which is, we think, of importance, and not too late to supply the defect: we allude to a conversation, said to have occurred between Mr. Pitt and a general officer, when a rupture with Spain was expected.

‘ A few weeks previous to Mr. Pitt’s resignation, the following conversation, as nearly as it can be related from memory, happened between Mr. Pitt and a general officer:—

‘ Sir, says Mr. Pitt, I find the Spaniards, are determined to break with us. It may become a fortunate circumstance; for although we have taken the French islands and colonies, they do not afford us ready money, which we want. You must take possession of Panama. How many regiments shall you want for such an expedition?— the ships can be provided for the purpose immediately—I have no doubt of making up 5,000 men, if necessary, from the British colonies, who are now secure. We have no reason to apprehend a disappointment—they may not be ready in

time, but must be sent you as they are raised ; rather as recruits than part of your command ?

‘ General officer.—“ Sir I shall not want a great number of disciplined troops—I know the exact force in that part of America—give me three or four regiments, with instructions to the middle and southern provinces to supply me with a few men accustomed to bush-fighting, and about two thousand negroes to work in the heat of the day. Give me powers to form an alliance, and promise of protection in religion and commerce—I’ll answer for the success, not only against Panama, but for a resignation of all Spanish America, in all matters which may be deemed beneficial to Great Britain.”

‘ Mr. Pitt.—“ Sir, get yourself in readiness—your commission shall be made out immediately.”

‘ Nor was this all—He meditated an attack upon the Philippine Islands: and he consulted lord Anson upon the subject, on account of his knowledge of those seas. Mr. Pitt’s design was to have reduced Panama first ; and next, to have made a detachment from and against Manilla. The reader has been already informed of his design against the Havannah ; which, though it was afterwards executed by his successors, yet had he continued to direct the war, that conquest would have been accomplished much sooner, and consequently great part of the force employed there, would have been at leisure, perhaps to have co-operated at Porto Bello, or some other place, with the expedition against Panama ; or have been ready for any other service. His design against the Philippine Islands was adopted by his successors ; but materially altered, by joining the East India Company in the measure. Nor would this expedition have been undertaken, had not lord Anson, in the strongest terms, repeatedly recommended and pressed it to lord Egremont.²

There is much reason to suppose this conversation authentic ; but we cannot understand how the Manillas were to be attacked by a detachment from Panama. The ships were, perhaps, to be carried across the isthmus, for they would not have been capable of any very active service after traversing Cape Horn. It must be remembered, however, that this idea is distinct from the conversation.

‘ We have seen the end of this great man’s brilliancy, as a minister. We are now to view him in the character of a single member of the legislature ; dignified, indeed, by reputation, but accompanied by no influence, nor followed by one individual of that obsequious crowd of representatives, who had lately given him unlimited confidence, and unbounded praise. This sudden, but not surprising change of opinion, in the representatives of the nation,

pation, was occasioned by no alteration in his sentiments or principles, no relaxation of his promptitude or vigour, no impeachment of his conduct, his judgment or his virtue ; nor was it to be ascribed to the usual versatility of mankind, particularly the natives of Great Britain, whose ruling passion is *novelty* ; but it is to be attributed entirely, and exclusively, to the influence of corruption, to the avarice and vanity of such men as are always eager to pay homage to the distribution of rewards ; whoever he may be, of whatever nation, or of whatever complexion.'

' Mr. Pitt's first care after his resignation, was the diminution of his household. Amongst his other retrenchments were his coach horses, which were sold by public advertisement in his own name. His enemies stigmatized this circumstance with the appellations of parade and ostentation ;— his friends denominated the whole measure prudence and œconomy. Certain it is, that he had not, like many of his predecessors, amassed a fortune in his late situation. He retired from office an indigent man, with little more than his annuity for his support. From all his places he acquired no possessions. The legacy of ten thousand pounds, left him by the duchess of Marlborough, had amply supplied his pecuniary wants ; released him from all dependence on his family and friends, and while it emancipated him from the terrors of obligation, it inspired him with that spirit of independence, which may be said to have first kindled that blaze, which adorned the remainder of his life. During his stay in office he had no levees—he dedicated his whole time to the duties of his station. When he resigned, many of the principal cities and corporations in the kingdom, presented him with addresses of thanks for his great and important services ; and at the same time lamented the cause of his departure from government.'

In the account before us, the court of Sardinia is said to have sold the peace, founded on the assertion of Mr. Pitt, in his speech in 1770, that this country had been twice sold by the house of Savoy : alluding in the first instance to the peace of Aix la Chapelle. If, as is asserted, the court of Turin was requested to guarantee the pacific intentions of England, and ' *implored*' to become an umpire in the treaty, the abject humiliating conduct cannot be too severely reprobated. For the following particulars no authority is mentioned : they must be received, therefore, with caution.

' The duke of Bedford set out for Paris on the fifth of September 1762, with full powers to treat ; and on the 12th of the same month, the duc de Nivernois arrived in England. A few hours after the duke of Bedford arrived at Calais, he received dispatches from

from London, by a messenger who was sent after him, containing some limitations in his full powers. He immediately sent the messenger back with a letter, insisting upon his former instructions being restored, and in case of a refusal, declaring his resolution to return to England. The cabinet acceded to his grace's demand. But the most essential articles of the treaty were agreed upon between M. de Choiseul and the Sardinian minister at Paris, and lord Bute and the Sardinian minister at London, without any other trouble to the duke of Bedford than giving his formal assent. The manœuvre in making the king of Sardinia *umpire*, gave to his ambassadors the power of decision; consequently the duke of Bedford had very little room for the exercise of his powers; until a circumstance happened, which occasioned a division in the British cabinet. This was the capture of the *Havannah*. The news of this event arrived in England on the 29th of September. The negotiation was nearly concluded. In a few days the preliminaries would have been signed.

‘ Lord Bute expressed his fears, that this acquisition would embarrass and postpone the accomplishment of peace, if the negotiation, which was on the point of being finished, should on that account be opened again; and therefore he declared his wish to be, to conclude the peace in the same manner, and on the same terms, which had been agreed upon before the news of this event arrived; without any other mention of it, than the name of it among the places to be restored.

‘ Mr. Grenville opposed this idea. He declared his opinion to be, that if the *Havannah* was restored, there ought to be an equivalent given for it. And in their deliberations upon this subject, it is certain, that he insisted upon this alternative—either the entire property of *Jucatan* and *Florida*, or the islands of *St. Lucia* and *Porto Rico*.

‘ Lord Bute adhered to his first opinion. Upon which Mr. Grenville resigned his place of secretary of state on the 12th day of October. Lord Halifax immediately succeeded to his office; and Mr. Grenville went to the admiralty, by which he was removed from the cabinet.

‘ Lord Egremont, however, represented to lord Bute, in very strong terms, the necessity of an equivalent for the *Havannah*. Either his lordship's arguments, or lord Bute's fears, so far prevailed, as to occasion an instruction to be sent to the duke of Bedford, to ask for *Florida*. The duke had been informed of the whole dispute in the British cabinet, by Mr. Grenville, and being entirely of Mr. Grenville's opinion, he added, *Porto Rico* to his demand. But lord Bute and the Sardinian minister in London, settled it for *Florida only*. At Paris some difficulties arose. The cession of *Florida* was made without the least hesitation,

tion, the French minister instantly agreed to it ; which shews the superior influence of the French cabinet in this negotiation. But with respect to Porto Rico, the French minister resorted to chicane and delay. It was at length agreed, to send a messenger to Madrid, with this demand. Fourteen days were allowed for the messenger to go and return. During this period the duke of Bedford received positive orders to sign the preliminaries. Two days after the preliminaries were signed, the messenger returned ; and *it was said*, that Spain purchased the retention of the island. Whether the Sardinian minister at London, or at Paris, or both, were entrusted on this occasion ; or whether any other persons were admitted to the same confidence, are questions for the investigation of posterity.'

Notwithstanding the efforts of the North Briton, our author supposes that the resignation of lord Bute was effected by the union of Mr. Grenville with the duke of Bedford, and the menaces held out to him respecting the negotiations for peace. The resignation of the duke of Devonshire and of the duke of Newcastle were attended with circumstances of popular disgust. The account given in these volumes we shall not transcribe, for we have been detained too long from the principal subject.

When the preliminaries of peace were laid before parliament, Mr. Pitt, then in an ill state of health, opposed them with great vigour. They were approved of, however, by a very large majority, a majority, as our author asserts a little too confidently, procured by bribes, unusually liberal both in the value and extent. It is certain that the expences of the war, the load of taxes till then unprecedented, had alarmed the nation, and an unmanly dread of future evils had succeeded the rejoicings for numerous and unexampled victories. Besides, if it is a maxim in the English constitution that the king can do no wrong, the idea is still more forcible when spoken of a *young* king, with the most interesting popular qualities.

The projected excise on cyder, and some other disagreeable attempts of the new ministry, rendered them unpopular, and occasioned some conferences in 1763 between Mr. Pitt and lord Bute. They produced, however, no beneficial consequence, owing, as our author very plainly insinuates, to secret influence. The numerous changes in administration, and their conduct respecting Mr. Wilkes, whose cause Mr. Pitt adopted, are well known. The following remarks occur in the account of the Rockingham administration in 1766 : it relates to Dunkirk.

‘ This point of frequent and anxious discussion, seems to have been mistaken by the British ministers, prior and subsequent to lord Rockingham. From the peace of Utrecht, in the year 1713, to the month of September 1765, all our demands concerning the demolition of Dunkirk, have originated in a wrong principle. We have insisted upon levelling the ramparts, upon filling up the cunette, &c. These were immaterial points, to which the French court consented, after some affected hesitation. The fortifications on the land side are of no consequence to England. It was the harbour alone that ought to have engaged our attention. Lord Rockingham saw this mistake; in his administration only, was the demolition of the harbour seriously attempted: and had he remained a little longer in office, it must have been accomplished. His demands were directed to the jettees, which protect the channel to the harbour, and without which, the harbour becomes totally unserviceable. These jettees are two piers, which project about three quarters of a mile from the harbour into the sea; and are about twelve feet high, from low-water mark: between them is the channel into the harbour. His lordship ordered a breach to be made in the eastern jettee, near the middle, sufficient to admit the sea. All Dunkirk was instantly filled with alarm. They saw the ruin of the harbour was inevitable. A few tides made the fact clear. The sand was driven through the breach with such astonishing velocity, it was fully manifest, the channel must be entirely choaked in a few days more. Had this breach been made larger, which was intended; and another made lower down, towards the sea, which was also intended; the harbour must have been so effectually rendered useless, that nothing larger than a row-boat, or a pilot, could have got into it. The French immediately saw the effect of this small breach, and instantly put a stop to the progress of the workmen. The reader is to observe, that in all our stipulations our court has made with France, respecting Dunkirk, a kind of childish delusion has constantly been admitted—this was—the French were to employ their own people to execute our demands, and we were to send our surveyors to examine and report the state of their operation. Our surveyors had no controul over the workmen: and if the French governor at any time, chose to put a stop to their labour, we could not oblige them to resume their work. The surveyors might return to England, and upon their report, the British ambassador at Paris was usually instructed to remonstrate; which commonly produced an evasive answer. The surveyors have been sent back, and the same farce has been played over again. In this manner have the negotiations concerning Dunkirk, been continued, dropped, and revived from the year 1713. As a proof, that lord Rockingham was right in this matter, we need only observe, the conduct of the French,

French, in this particular, since the treaty of 1782, by which we surrendered all claim and concern whatever respecting Dunkirk. Instead of repairing the fortifications, on the demolition of which, we formerly so strenuously insisted, or opening the cunette, or paying any regard whatever to the land side, their whole attention has been directed to *widening, deeping, and enlarging the harbour.* They have made it *capacious, safe, and convenient.* Those who think Dunkirk a place of no danger to the commerce of London, may find their mistake in a future day.'

During this administration Mr. Wilkes returned from France to London. We only mention it to remark, that the account of his negotiation with the ministry is taken, it is said, from Mr. H. Cote's manuscript. In this account it is observed, that Mr. Rose Fuller, who was violent in his opposition to various administrations, was found, on his death, to have received a pension from the court for many years.

The next and last step of importance, in lord Chatham's public life, related to the American stamp-act; the various negotiations for changes in administration would detain us too long, and are too disgusting to induce us to enlarge on them. The debates on the Middlesex election are not equally unimportant; but the question is in no material respect elucidated by our author. We may stop to notice, however, our author's remarks on the supposed generosity of queen Anne, who granted 100,000l. per annum from the civil list, towards the expences of the war.

' In fact, this pretended generosity was one of the most scandalous actions that the crown ever committed by any administration. It was a manifest and gross cheat upon the public, who were extravagant losers by it; for some time after, viz. upon the 25th of June 1713, the queen acquainted the house of commons, by message, that she had contracted a very large debt upon her civil list revenue, which she was unable to pay, and therefore desired to make them good; and such was the complaisance of a tory parliament, that notwithstanding the detestation which must have arisen in every honest breast, upon the detection of this clumsy juggle, and though Mr. Smith, one of the tellers of the exchequer, honestly informed the house, that the estimate of this debt was astonishing to him, being made to amount to August 1710, to 400,000l. Whereas, he was able to affirm from his own knowledge, that it amounted at that time to little more than 100,000l. and though many others undertook to prove, that the funds given for 700,000l. had, in reality, amounted to 800,000l.; and though these gentlemen had prevailed so far as to procure an address to the crown for an account of the civil list debt at Midsummer 1713,

and

and for a yearly account of the net produce of the civil list revenue, no regard was paid to this information, nor to this address; none of these accounts were ever permitted to be laid before the house, and upon the very next day they voted no less a sum than 500,000l. for this service.—This is the truth, and the whole truth, of that generous exploit of the daughter of king James II. It was a mean trick, by which the nation was cheated of 400,000l.—This queen had as many private vices, and as few public virtues, as any prince who has filled the British throne since the House of Tudor.'

There is in the history of this period, also, a pretty long account of the negotiation respecting Falkland Islands, which greatly reflects on the spirit and activity of the ministers at that time. The following design is said to be communicated from the duke de Choiseul, in a conversation with general Burgoyne, after the duke's exile. It may be useful, however, to transcribe the whole account.

‘ On the twenty second (of December 1770), the counter-negotiation of the efficient council, began to emerge out of its dark chamber. The confidential minister of the closet, held a conference with M. Francois, secretary to the embassy of France at the court of London, upon the subject of terms of accommodation with Spain. This secret negotiation was unknown to the French minister, M. le duc de Choiseul; who had entered fully into the designs of Spain, and had firmly resolved to support that power in her intended war with Great Britain. At this time, there was a strong party in the French court against Choiseul, consisting of madame Barre, the princes of the blood, the prince de Souzize, and of other great persons; who had for several months past, anxiously and eagerly wished to procure the dismission of the minister; but hitherto he had maintained his interest with the king, notwithstanding all their efforts against him. The king was now advanced beyond the climacteric of life, and affectionately attached to the season of peace; because it afforded him more opportunity to indulge in his favourite pleasures, than the period of war. For this season M. Choiseul had not acquainted the king with his design of co-operating with Spain; by which he had flattered himself, that he should obliterate the disgraces of the late war. The design was discovered, or rather made known to madame Barre; who immediately prejudiced the king so strongly against the project of his minister, that he yielded to her importunities; and dismissed him from all his employments. And, at the same time, exiled him, to Chanteloux.—Several English, as well as French gentlemen, and persons of high rank, visited him in his exile. He was the first exiled French minister, who had ever been so honoured. In a free conversation with one of his

English visitors, (general Burgoyne) he candidly informed him of one part of his plan against Great Britain, if the war had commenced, which he intended—It was—to have landed an army in Essex; to have proceeded with the utmost rapidity to London, where they were to have burned the Bank and the Tower, particularly the first; but to have committed no other depredation whatever, and then to have returned with the same expedition. The troops were to have had no other baggage or incumbrance, than their knapsacks. His principal object was, to annihilate the public credit of Great Britain, which he conceived, the destruction of the Bank in London would perfectly accomplish. It must be owned the scheme is feasible, and, perhaps not impracticable. There are always vessels enough at Calais and Dunkirk for such an expedition; and the vicinity of the garrisoned towns facilitates the assembling of an army, without creating an alarm. The anecdote may serve to put future ministers on their guard; for, at that time, we had no force in any situation, to impede the operation, had it been attempted.'

On the subject of the American war, our author does not give any very new or interesting intelligence. Lord Chatham's conduct, in this very important subject, is well known; nor shall we transcribe speeches, which were at that time published with sufficient accuracy. The reason, why we have avoided giving specimens of his speeches in the former transactions of his life, is that they are in general too extensive to be quoted with advantage within our limits. It is well known that the violence of his indignation overpowered him, in his eagerness to oppose the independence of America. He breathed his last in protesting against this measure. It was his design, says our author, a design, which we have reason to believe from other sources, to have proposed the duke of Brunswick as general of the British forces, and to have opposed the French according to his former plan, in Germany. It has been believed by others, that he intended to advise the duke's being sent to America. Another part of the plan was, when he had thus prevented the French from assisting the Americans, to have proposed a cordial and honourable union between this country and America.

Our author adds a short character of lord Chatham, and in the Appendix has collected various characters and eulogies of this great minister, and the necessary public documents to illustrate his history, with some private and curious papers. The length of our article alone prevents us from enlarging on some of these; and, if we have extended it farther than an anonymous work may seem to demand, the singular curiosity and importance of the subject must be our excuse.

The

The Iliad and Odyssey of Homer, translated into English blank Verse, by William Cowper, Esq. (Concluded from p. 374.)

WE concluded our last with expressing our disapprobation at Mr. Cowper's system of rendering some lines inharmonious to set off the others to greater advantage. His sedulity in avoiding melody appears in no respect more conspicuous (for to what other cause can we attribute it), than in his very frequent omission of the article or preposition.

— ‘ and as he * spake *is done.*’
— ‘ if thou wouldest *wish me give*
Eumelus of my own.’ Il. xxiii. 692.

The effect which these omissions have on the ear is extremely unpleasant; and they often make a sentiment appear ridiculous, that in the original was of a very different nature. A warrior attacks another ‘ spear in hand;’ ‘ she found her son all tears;’ ‘ firm as rock he stood;’ ‘ Corax at side of Arethusa’s fount;’ ‘ thou perchance art always fool.’ ‘ Should we now strike true.’

— ‘ delay suits not;
Last rites cannot too soon be paid.’

This abrupt kind of style seems modelled after that of Briggs in the novel of *Cecilia.* Again;

— ‘ neither will we here admit
Poor man beside to stay at our repasts.’
‘ Why speakest thus to me?’
‘ Awake Tydides! wherefore giv’st the night
Entire to balmy slumber? halt not heard.’
‘ Who art and whence who dar’st encounter me?’
‘ Tydides, canst not see?’

This is the language of parson Trulliber; who would likewise have described a fall much in the following terms.

‘ And down fell Dolops headlong to the ground.’

The inelegancy of such phrases will surprise the reader, and their number is far from inconsiderable. We have, ‘ *clutch’d* + the bloody dust;’ ‘ blood *spatter’d* all his axle;’ ‘ his head *reek’d*;’ ‘ *pelting* with blows;’ ‘ audacious fluent *prate*;’ ‘ my soul is *stunn’d* within me;’ ‘ for he had other *none*,’ i. e. no other spear; ‘ we will *none* of Paris’ treasures now;’ ‘ *prating* his fill;’ ‘ guests *shoved* aside;’ ‘ Venus *coax’d* some Græcian

* — ‘ τα δε ουν παντα τελείται.

† *Clutch’d* is indeed enshrined in the temple of Shakespeare.—‘ Come let me *clutch* thee!’

fair ;' 'sleek their heads, and smug their countenances ;' 'I need not thee, nor heed thy wrath a jot ;' 'panic-stunn'd ;' 'let each whet well his spear ;' 'twitch'd her fragrant robe ;' 'he hurl'd his spear right forth ;' 'the keen lance drove into his poll ;' 'loud groans the briny pool,' i. e. the sea ; 'Tantalus stands in a pool' (*εν λιμνῃ*), why not lake or flood ? 'a bloody whelk ;' 'Hector trepann'd me forth.'

' He, a shaft sent smartly forth.'

' He laid the sceptre smartly on his back.'

— ' let him cast

His golden heaps into the public maw.'

— ' the shame between

And navel pierc'd him.'

This is literal : but would not 'beneath the navel' have answered as well ?

The following passage is, in the original, and in Pope's version, spirited and sublime :

' So Ajax o'er the decks of num'rous ships
Stalk'd striding large, and sent his voice to heav'n.
 Thus, ever clamouring, he bade the Greeks
Stand both for camp and fleet. Nor could *himself*
Hector, contented, now, the battle wage
Lost in the multitude of *Trojans* more.' Il. xv. 831.

Ulysses wrestles with Ajax, and

— ' on the ham behind

Chopp'd him.' (Κόψε) Il. xxiii. 903.

' Vulcan took in hand

His sturdy staff, and shuffled thro' the door.' Il. xviii. 515.

It is said of one of the suitors, that

' while thus he jeer'd

Ulysses, set the others in a roar.' Odys. 431, 427. In Homer ' caused them to laugh.'

The dignified gravity of the epic poem is not always preserved, nor evidently intended to be so, by Homer, in his *Odyssey*. It is an interesting narrative, a faithful and pleasing picture of the manners that prevailed in an early period of society : the familiar dialogues that give us a particular insight into those manners are peculiarly fascinating. But they appear to us too simple for a close translation in blank verse ; and, if ornamented, the beauties which originated from their naiveté, are obscured, or rendered ridiculous, by their adventitious finery. This is seldom to be complained of here. The characteristic vulgarity of Irus, and we scarcely know whether to speak in praise or censure, is even heightened in the translation.

‘ Gods ! with what volubility of speech
 The table-hunter prates, like an old hag
 Collied with chimney-smutch ! but ah beware !
 For I intend thee mischief, and to dash
 With both hands ev’ry grinder from thy gums,
 As men untooth a pig pilf’ring the corn.’

The author did not, possibly, recollect that *collied* is taken from a colliery, with the nature of which, neither Irus, nor Ulysses, in all his travels, could have been acquainted. But no simplicity in the original will excuse the inelegance of the generality of the following expressions.

— ‘ soon as she reclined she *dozed*.’ Odys. xviii. 231.

— ‘ what thews
 And what a *baunch* the senior’s tatters hid ?’

Odys. xviii. 89.

— ‘ The billows *belch’d* horrible abroad.’

Odys. v. 482.

‘ Ye rural drones, whose purblind eyes see not
 Beyond the present hour, egregious fools !’

Such language as this is only suitable to a rural drone.
 The goddess of eloquence thus addresses Pandarus :

— ‘ dar’st thou *slip*
A shaft at Menelaus ?’

And Ulysses, attacked by the dogs of Eumæus,

— ‘ as ever well advised
Squatted.’ (εξετο) Odys. xiv. 37.

‘ All that I can I will ; right thro’ I go.’ Il. xx. 441.

— ‘ eels his flanks, &c. *nibbled* bare.’ Il. xxi. 241.

‘ Shall rend thy body while a *scrap* remains.’

Il. xxii. 409.

‘ But when I had in dust *roll’d* me, and wept.’

Odys. iv. 652.

Venus says, Diomede wounded her,

‘ For that I stole Æneas from the fight.’ Il. v. 438.

A phrase often repeated instead of ‘ because.’

‘ Let Jove but once afford us *riddance* clear
 Of these Achaians !’

— ‘ why art thou always given
 To *prate*, Idomeneus ?’ Il. xxiii. 593.

The myrmidons are compared to wolves who

— ‘ eject
 From full maws * *flatulent* the clotted gore.’

* This image is, however, rather more disgusting in the original. The following expression is not translated.

— περιπετατας δε το γαγγης. Il. xvi. 163.

— ‘ where

— ‘ where he strove
With Philomelides, and *threw him flat.*’ Odys. iv. 423.

To enumerate expressions of this kind would be an endless labour. We shall therefore point out some other phrases, to whose peculiarity we object rather than their vulgarity. Those which our following collection exhibits by way of specimen, are not calculated, much more than the preceding ones, to inspire that reverence which is commonly supposed due to the Epic Muse. ‘ The *game* of rhetoric.’ ‘ Of *pause* (i. e. of rest) impatient;’ ‘ was for beauty, such;’ ‘ *conscious* of both,’ i. e. knowing both, (*γνωστον*); ‘ *fiend* for his herd,’ i. e. defended; ‘ *forlorn* (i. e. deprived) of thee;’ ‘ *adust* for blood;’ ‘ *play-thing* walls;’ ‘ wiped the *rheums*,’ i. e. tears; ‘ *coiflets* *furbish'd* bright;’ ‘ A spear *acuminated* sharp with brass;’ Scilla’s six necks ‘ *clubb'd* into heads;’ Diomede ‘ pursues the Cyprian goddess *conscious* *whom*;’ i. e. knowing who she was. ‘ Ulysses is dash’d into a wreck;’ he might be shipwrecked, but the ship alone could become a wreck. ‘ Remembrance busily* retracing themes’ (antipathies); ‘ teeming with thoughts of slaughter;’ and

‘ A cloud of dust
Upstamp'd into the brazen vault of heaven;’

Sound rather affectedly: as do,

‘ Our banded *decads* should (would) so far exceed
Their *units* —

i. e. they were ten to one.

‘ Thou art my first and last, *proem* and close.’

Il. ix. 105.

Thus the wise Nestor addresses his king of kings, Agamemnon. In Homer, he says, he will begin and conclude his speech with talking about him. So, at least, we understand it; but we cannot conjecture how Mr. Cowper’s line is meant to be understood. Neptune is mentioned as

— ‘ lifting high Æneas from the ground,
He heav’d him far remote; o'er many a rank
Of heroes and of bounding steeds he flew,
Launch'd into air from the expanded palm
Of Neptune.’

In the first line one should naturally suppose, from the location of the words, that Æneas was *high*, or tall in stature, not lifted *on* high. And, according to the last, he seems *let off*, like a paper kite or sky-rocket, from the hand of Neptune.

* Ταῦ μημενομένος.

Juno displeased at Hector's success,

— ‘ Shuddering on her throne
Rock'd the Olympian.’ Il. viii. 228.

This bears a stronger resemblance to a person seized with a cold fit of the ague, than to the empress of heaven moving with indignation, not with fear, in her throne, and wide Olympus, trembling around her.

— νέμεσος δε ποτυία Ήρη
Σειστα δεινα: θρόνω, ελλιξε δε μακρού ολυμπον. Il. viii. 193.

The effect is awful, and similar to that caused by the sovereign nod of Jupiter; and her subsequent speech is full of violence and fury.—

‘ Thund'ring, he downward hurled his cendent bolt
To the horse-feet of Diomede; dire fumed
The flaming sulphur, and both horses drove
Under the axle, *belly to the ground.*’

The Translator here turns what was great to farce by the low description of the horses' terror, and by giving ‘ horse-feet’ to Diomede.

Βροντη ας δ' αγα δεινον, αφη' αρυπτα κεραυνον,
Καδδε περ εθ' ιππων Διομηδεος πηε χαμαζε.
Δεινη δε φλοξ αρτο θειε καιομενοι.
Τω δ' ιππω δεισαντε καταπτητην υπ' οχεσφιν. Il. viii. 133.

This is truly sublime: and if the English reader will refer to Pope (Il. viii. 161.), he will form a very different, and a much juster, idea of the original than from the preceding translation.

Nestor advises Telemachus, (Odys. iii. 404.) not to leave his treasures at ‘ the mercy of those proud;’ why not add *men* as in Homer? ‘ *Wishing* home;’ why not, wishing to go home? Menelaus, talking of Ulysses, tells Telemachus,

— ‘ I purpos'd
To have receiv'd him with such friendship here
As none besides.’

Without recurring to the original (Odys. iv. 171.), we cannot be certain whether he means as none besides would have received him, or as he would have received no one besides.

As the last passages we quoted are rendered obscure by the omission of some essential words, others stand in the same predicament by a complicated location of them.

‘ Ye, then, with faces to the Trojans turn'd,
Ceaseless retire.’

Thus Diomede advises the Grecians; and it seems strange at first sight that so gallant a warrior should direct his countrymen to retire without ceasing. But if we consult the original (Il. v. 605.), we shall find that he exhorts them to retire indeed, but with their faces constantly turned towards the enemy.

‘ *Him*

‘Him never, while, alive myself, I mix
With living men and move, will I forget’ Il. xxii. 447.

I. e. while I live I will never forget him. Many instances of obscurity, caused by an improper inversion of words, have been given before. But it is not always to be referred to that cause. Helen tells Paris,

—‘Ah! would that thou hadst died
By that heroic arm, mine husband’s eril.’

What does this expression imply,—‘the arm that was once her husband’s? The original is perfectly plain: ‘I wish you had been killed by that brave man who was my former husband.’—Ος επος προτερος πατεις νευ (Il. iii. 429).

‘Spurr’d thro’ the portal flew her rapid steeds.’

This is spoken of Juno’s horses, as she drives them harnessed to her chariot.

An odd contrast occurs in the following description of a young warrior between the words *starting* and *gliding*: both applied to the same action cannot be proper.

—‘in the vanity of youth,
For show of nimbleness, he *started* oft
Into the vaward, ’till at last he fell.
Him *gliding* swiftly by, swifter than he
Achilles with a javelin reach’d.’—

When Neptune is styled,

‘Earth-shaking sovereign of the waves,’

the contradictory terms produce likewise a bad effect.

Antique words and phrases, it is generally allowed, if cautiously introduced, have a good effect in an epic poem, but we meet with some here, the instances are however not many, that no way tend to preserve the majesty or venerable simplicity of the original. ‘*Agnized*’ for known; ‘*kirtle*’ for mantle, ‘*convolv’d*,’ ‘*blurr’d* the sight,’ ‘the field’s *bourn*,’ &c. are, probably, too obsolete. ‘Or ere that’ and ‘or ere we part’ for *before that*, are phrases seldom to be found but in the sacred writings, or in Shakspeare, and have nothing but those respectable authorities to recommend them.

Our charge against Mr. Cowper for using phrases of modern fashion, or allusive to modern manners, is much more heavy than in regard to those which are obsolete. He asserts indeed ‘that he has cautiously avoided *all* terms of new invention:’ But we fancy it would be no easy matter for him to trace the following to any other source. ‘A fathom of designs.’ ‘The fattest of the *saginated* charge,’ i. e. the fattest of *fatten’d* pigs. ‘A helmet *quatre-crested*.’ Mr. Cowper vindicates this epithet

by 'the cowslip' (mole) cinque-spotted in Shakspeare. We never before met with 'woman-mad,' 'spie-maiden,' 'misfortune-flaw'd,' 'cross-eyed,' and 'intellected;' with 'unstrew'd,' 'unslain,' 'unvantag'd,' and 'unemasculated steeds.' We are not so clear in regard to the *ups* as the *uns*, which are likewise pretty numerous. We have 'upstamp'd,' 'updarter,' 'up-ridg'd,' 'updravn,' 'upbuilds,' 'upwent,' 'upstood,' and 'up-ran to manhood.' 'S:a-ward,' and even 'land-ward' we have seen before, but never 'side-ward,' 'left-ward,' or 'Troy-ward.' If all these words are not absolutely new, we are certain that they are generally so; and others, either newly invented or newly compounded, will occur, when we more particularly consider the epithets. Many phrases likewise are adopted not in unison with the times in which the original was written. Nestor observes that the success or overthrow of the Greeks was 'poised on a razor's edge *.' 'Troy's reprieve' is not the exact substitute for Τρωοιν αναληντις νηνε: nor 'the hardy *clans* of Hyrie' for Οι Τροιεν ενεμοντο.—Penelope threatens her domestics with being 'cashier'd.' Irus, struck down by Ulysses, 'with his heels drumm'd the ground.' Ulysses talks of being 'cajoled by a shrew'd Phœnician.' A vessel of that country is mentioned, in another place, as being 'mann'd by *sharpers* ;' and Eumeus says a woman of Phœnicia talked of him when a child, as 'an urchin that *scamper'd* by her side.' He likewise informs us that in ancient Greece, as well as in modern Britain,

— 'perquisites are ev'ry servant's joy.'

And Hector talks of exhibiting Patroclus' head

— 'impaled † on high,'—

This mode of punishment was, we believe, never heard of in the region of Troy till it became subject to the disciples of Mahomet.

* This may be considered as a faithful translation of

Ἐπι τέρπεις γενατας αγνεν. Il. x. 173.

But it gives a modern idea. Pope has dropt the letter and retained the spirit.

‘ Each single Greek, in this conclusive strife,
Stands on the *sharpest* edge of death or life.’

This phrase might possibly be borrowed from Milton :

‘ Ye see our danger on the *utmost* edge
Of hazard.’ Par. Reg. i. 94.

And Milton might have the preceding passage of Homer in his contemplation when he writ it : or, indeed, the following one of Shakspeare ; who hardly consulted Homer on the occasion, but derived his ideas from the same common source with him, a bold and vivid imagination.

‘ We'll strive to bear it, for your worthy sake,
To th' extreme edge of hazard.’

† *Impaled*, if Mr. Cowper would have ventured here to coin a new word, would have been more consonant to the original. Homer threatens to cut off (not 'lopp') his head, and fix it upon a pole.

— τηγεις ανα σκολοπεσσα. Il. xviii. 176.

The translator says: those

—‘ that would consent to an English form I have preserved as epithets; others that would not, I have melted into the context. There are none, I believe, which I have not translated in one way or other, though the reader will not find them repeated so often as most of them are in Homer, for a reason that need not be mentioned.’

We frequently observe an omission of epithets, but cannot affirm that they are not introduced in other places. To repeat them, whenever they occurred in the original, would, as Mr. C. observes, have produced a very unpleasant effect. In Homer, particular ones are often repeatedly applied to particular heroes without respect to their propriety as to situation and circumstance. The *godlike* Patroclus kindles a fire to roast some mutton; and the *divine* Eumæus broils a pork-griskin, which the *divine* Ulysses devours very greedily. So ludicrous an opposition, between the situation and the expression, is commonly avoided: yet when

—‘ *divine* Ulysses from beneath
His thicket crept,’

we could have wished for an epithet less close to the original. When Apollo instigates Æneas to oppose Achilles, Mr. C. properly drops the word *βελτοφε* (Il. xx. 83.), for to address him by the name of *counsellor*, at such a time, would appear rather ludicrous in our language. We wish he had always omitted the words *counsellors* and *senators* (however consonant to the original) when applied to the Trojan and Græcian leaders, exhorting one another to action, or engaging in battle.

‘ There, Nestor, brave Gerenian, with a voice
Sonorous roused the *godlike counsellor*
From sleep, Ulysses.’ Il. x. 161.

‘ Black as a storm the senators renown’d
. . . assailed buttress and tower.’ Il. xii. 456.

‘ Huge Priam’ enters unseen into the tent of Achilles, (Il. xxiv. 599.) We can scarcely conceive a more improper word: *μεγας* certainly signifies *great*, but it might be allusive to eminence of station, of power, or of mind, as well as body. A ‘ *blatant goat*’ may, possibly, be allowed; but we cannot approve of ‘ *blatant appetite*;’ of ‘ *triturated barley-grain*;’ ‘ *of the deep-fork’d Olympian*,’ (*πολυπτυχος*); ‘ *of birth-pang-dispensing Hythia*,’ (*μοροσονος*); of ‘ *deep-bellied barks*,’ (*γλαφυρας*); of a ‘ *stone angled sharp*,’ (*τρηνχυν*); of ‘ *glutinated portals*;’ of ‘ *boorish-rough*;’ ‘ *brainless and big*;’ ‘ *earth-cumbrer* (*βεγχει*) Ajax;’ ‘ *thy whole big promise*;’ of a ‘ *tripod ample-womb’d*,’ (*τριποδα μεγαν*); of an ‘ *unrelenting spear*,’ for *οξει καλων*; of ‘ *beauteous Halia with eyes protuberant*,’ (*βοωπις*); of *sturdy*

being a favourite epithet; for which it is not easy to find a correspondent one in Homer. We have 'sturdy sons, a sturdy spear, sturdy staff, sturdy thighs, a sturdy wrestler,' &c. We have, and we believe they are the first of the kind, a steed 'azure-maned,' 'a god in disguise,' *ιππω εισημενος κυανοχατη*, and an 'azure-crested nightingale,' *χλωρης αεδων*. Thetis likewise is styled *azure haired*; but the original is *Θετιδος πυκνομο*. *Δολιχοσκιον*, &c. *Δολιχοσκιον εγχει* is commonly rendered a 'long shadowed spear'; but we should imagine the reverse was meant, 'a spear that casts a long shadow.' *Ποδενιμος* is commonly prefixed to Iris, and translated 'storm-wing'd,' 'tempest-wing'd,' but we believe never, as it imports, 'with feet of wind.'

'*Patrimonial amity*' is an odd phrase for (*ξενοι πατρωιοι*), 'hereditary friendship.' At least we never met with the word in this signification before.

'*Incontinent*' is very often introduced in the same sense which Milton uses it, as synonymous to *immediately*. It is, we imagine, not generally allowed to be naturalised in our language; and if it be so, it should not, likewise, be brought forward according to common acceptance:

—‘incontinent as fair.’

The epithets that follow, marked in Italics, have a foundation in the original, but strangely enfeeble the idea. Mr. Cowper would not have been charged with any want of judgment had he omitted them: the breach would have been as honourable as the observance.

—‘neither Peleus thee begat,
Nor Thetis bore, but rugged rocks *sublime*,
And roaring billows *blue* gave birth to thee.’

In enumerating the different defects which have struck us in Mr. Cowper's version, we must not omit the liberties which he occasionally takes with the auxiliary verbs: 'he shall soon,' for 'he will soon'; 'may we,' for 'can we'; 'never may it be,' for 'never shall it be:' and 'as he might'—'asbeit I may,' are frequently introduced for, 'as he could,' and 'as I can.' Agamemnon tells the shades of the suitors, that

—‘not the chosen youths of a whole town *should* [i. e. could or would] form a nobler band.’—And Ulysses calls for assistance,

—‘thrice loud as mortal *may*’—i. e. can.

It may be objected to us that, in reviewing this translation, we have been more sedulous in pointing out defects, than in selecting beauties. To this we reply, that they are more numerous; and though we have quoted but few of the latter species,

we have allowed that many others are to be found. And we must observe, that though we have given a pretty long list of the former, yet had we been instigated by malevolence, or impelled even by a persevering spirit of investigation, we might have enlarged it very considerably. We have, indeed, produced more instances, than what, in all probability, we otherwise should have done, to vindicate the opinion we have always entertained, that a *close translation of Homer in blank verse could not do justice to the original*. Mr. Cowper says, *such a translation has been repeatedly and loudly demanded by some of the best judges and ablest writers of the present day*. Without meaning any offence to those gentlemen, whoever they may be, we have presumed to differ in judgment from them. Opinions in matters of taste will vary; and the superiority of rhyme to blank verse, or vice versa, will ever, in all probability, be a matter of debate. Neither do we contend with any on that subject in general, but as confined to a close version of Homer; and we have scattered through our critique different reasons on which we formed an idea that *such an attempt would not succeed*. Mr. Cowper professes that he has

—‘ no fear of judges familiar with original Homer. They need not be told that a translation of him is an arduous enterprise, and as such, entitled to some favour. From these, therefore, I shall expect, and shall not be disappointed, considerable candour and allowance. Especially *they* will be candid, and I believe that there are many such, who have occasionally tried their own strength in this bow of Ulysses. They have not found it supple and pliable, and with me are perhaps ready to acknowledge that they could not always even approach with it the mark of their ambition.’

The difficulty he acknowledges we likewise have foreseen; and are ready to excuse what we do not greatly approve; for we cannot look even upon Mr. Cowper as the favoured knight destined to complete an adventure in which all other competitors have miscarried. We respect his abilities; some passages are executed with great taste and spirit, and many that were difficult he has happily elucidated: yet, on the whole, the performance appears to us, considered as a poetical work, flat, heavy, and uninteresting. ‘ To the illustrious Greek, Mr. C. says, he owes the smooth and easy flight of many thousand hours.’ We heartily wish, if it would have yielded equal amusement, that he had dedicated those hours to original composition; we should then have followed him with more satisfaction, and we doubt not have acquired both pleasure and instruction in the pursuit.

*** In our last, p. 313. seventeen lines from the bottom, omit the word *have*.

A R E V I E W

OF

P U B L I C A F F A I R S,

FROM

J A N U A R Y T O M A Y 1792.

N O R T H A M E R I C A.

TH E address of the president of congress, to both houses of the federal legislature, presents a pleasing prospect of the rapid advances of the American states in agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and navigation. The treaty with the Indians, mentioned in our last statement, was only partial; and the war with other savage nations continues to rage on the frontiers of Kentucky. General St. Clair's army has been completely defeated by the savages with the loss, as is averred, of about 40 officers, and 600 privates; eight pieces of cannon, and all the baggage, fell into the hands of the foe. By the latest accounts this defeat has since been avenged on the former victors, who were surprised, and routed with great slaughter.

W E S T I N D I E S.

The disturbances in St. Domingo are far from being appeased; and that unhappy settlement will for a time be lost in the annals of European commerce. We cannot venture on any detail of the events, as the distance of the scene, and the views of party at home, have joined to perplex the narration. The original and chief disputes seem to have arisen between the whites and the people of colour, or mulattoes; but in some parts the blacks have arisen against the whites; and the town of St. Marc has, as is said, fallen a prey to the former.

S A N D-

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

The cruelty of captain Metcalf, commander of an American vessel, who in revenge for the loss of a boat, and one man, poured a broadside into a numerous assemblage of canoes, to the instant destruction of near a hundred savages, has been deservedly reprobated. Even the slaughter of Cook would not have vindicated such a revenge.

O T A H E I T E.

Intelligence has been received from captain Edwards, commander of the Pandora, sent in quest of the mutineers against captain Bligh, that sixteen have been taken; but Christian and the other nine, retiring to some distant isle with the Bounty, have not been found. The Pandora has since been wrecked, but the crew is saved,

N E W H O L L A N D.

The British colony here still labours under great disadvantages from the want of provisions.

E A S T I N D I E S.

Since our last account no intelligence of much importance has been received. The army of lord Cornwallis was in motion, in the beginning of October. Oussoore, a place of great strength and importance, has fallen into our hands. Tippoo had, by the latest accounts, entrenched himself about twelve miles from Seringapatam; and lord Cornwallis with his grand army was advancing towards him. General Abercrombie, with the Bombay army, had ascended the Ghauts, and was well supplied with provisions. Our affairs proceeded, however, with a slow prosperity.

The encounter between a French and English frigate occasioned some surprize. So far as can be judged, from the detail laid before the public, there was rather too much severity and distrust shewn on our side, and an ill-timed arrogance on that of the French commander, who was apparently a young man.

A F R I C A.

The empire of Morocco has been lost in intestine commotions. A battle was fought between the emperor and his brother Ben Affer, in which the latter was defeated and slain. Late accounts bear that the Spaniards had assisted another brother against the emperor, and that the conflict proved fatal to the latter.

R U S-

R U S S I A.

The final treaty with the Turks, concluded at Jassy the 9th of January, states that the Dniester shall be the boundary; that the cities of Moldavia and Wallachia shall be confirmed in their privileges: that the Port shall guarantee the tranquillity of Grusinia, Georgia, and Caucasus; and all Russian vessels against the corsairs of Barbary. The empress is improving Oczacow, and rendering it a place of great strength, importance, and commerce.

At the same time Catherine is not negligent of her share in European politics. She has assured the pope that she will support him in the resumption of Avignon; and has published a warm manifesto against the French revolution, and the progress of liberty. But Poland, and its new scheme of government, excite her chief apprehensions. It is risible to behold the efforts of freedom compelling monarchs to declare secrets better preserved with dignified silence. Distant must be that period in which a Russian slave begins even to form an idea of freedom; and Catherine herself condemns it, as the popes condemned these as heretics who asserted the solar system, the antipodes, and other mathematical truths.—It is expected that a Russian fleet will assist the efforts of the king of Hungary and Prussia against France.

P O L A N D.

Warm debates concerning the sale of the starosties, which are regal fiefs allotted to individuals in reward of services, or from mere favour, have occurred in the diet. The empress of Russia foments the divisions, and will probably soon take an active part against the new constitution. The elector of Saxony has insulted a people who called him, and his family, to the throne, by demanding the guarantee of Russia.

S W E D E N.

A diet summoned by the king to meet at Gefflé, a solitary place on the Bothnic gulf, near seventy miles from Stockholm, excited much attention. Some imagined that the diet might assert the national freedom against a despotic monarch; but Gustavus had guarded against any such design, by his choice of the spot, and by posting his mercenary troops around. He found however some difficulty in gaining his only intention, that of raising money; and was obliged to put up with a part of his demand.

The

The diet being dissolved, the king returned to Stockholm, where, at a masquerade in the opera-house, on the night of the 16th of March, he was shot with a pistol by an assassin, named Ankerstroem: and, having lived in great pain till the 29th of that month, he expired.

This assassination was committed in consequence of a conspiracy among some of the discontented nobles; so that the Swedish aristocracy has prevented Gustavus from attempting to restore that of France: and it has become difficult to decide whether aristocrats or democrats be the most dangerous enemies to regal power. The chief conspirators are said to have been baron Pechlin, counts Horn and Ribbing. Baron Bielke, the king's secretary, another conspirator, prevented the torture by taking poison. It is singular that the very court of Gustavus III. was composed of his enemies; while, conscious of the dishonour which he had brought upon the aristocracy of his country, his prudence might have directed a different procedure. He was a prince of distinguished abilities: the plan of the revolution of 1772, which rendered him absolute, was laid at Paris, where he was when his father died; but he executed it with great art, and decided resolution. As the nobles, whom he crushed, were supported by Russia, to which power they sacrificed the interests of their country, the despotism of Gustavus was a desperate, but the only, remedy; and he was rather beloved by his people. Yet neither he, nor the Danish kings, while the national voice could alone enable them to overcome the aristocracy, have had the generosity to raise the third estate, by a free representation, to its proper weight, though a measure of sounder and more durable policy, and more advantageous to the industry and importance of their states, and of course to the wealth and power of the monarch, than that ruinous despotism which tramples on all ranks; which, by desolating the kingdom, at length subdues it to foreign power, and extinguishes the line of princes, who perish by the very wounds which they have inflicted.

The regency is, by the king's will, the authority of which may however well be disputed by some future diet, invested in his brother, the duke of Sudermania, and a council; and is to continue till the prince, now fourteen years of age, shall have attained the age of eighteen. It is probable that the attempts of the nobles to regain their influence may much disturb the regency, especially if they follow the ancient example of the English barons, and interest the people at large in their claims.

D E N M A R K.

Count Schimmelman, minister of state, finances, and commerce, has the merit of accomplishing the abolition of the slave trade-

trade among the subjects of Denmark. His plan was approved by the king on the 22d of February last, and is to be gradual. The disinterestedness of this minister, who possesses large estates in the Danish West India islands, recommends his exertions to the greater praise.

A scheme for defraying the national debt has been suggested and followed. One million has already been discharged.

I T A L Y.

The pope continues to threaten dreadful anathemas against those French clergy who have taken the civic oath; and to solicit the catholic counts, and even the Greek heretics of Russia, for assistance in the recovery of Avignon.

S P A I N.

The sudden dismission of count Florida Blanca from the office of prime minister, originates in causes not disclosed. It is imagined that the court found this step necessary, to appease the public murmur at some late measures, particularly the edict concerning strangers, which contributed to impose further fetters on commerce, and which has since been repealed. On the 28th of February the minister was removed; and count d'Aranda, an old statesman, a warm friend of the queen and nobility of France, holds his employments till some other arrangement can be formed. The superintendency over all the departments of the Spanish government is vested in the council of state, of which his catholic majesty has declared himself president, and the count d' Aranda senior member. Such are the terms of the Gazette, which are not a little singular.

P O R T U G A L.

On the 10th of March the prince of Brazil, as presumptive heir to the crown, published an edict, declaring that as his mother, from her unhappy situation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his signature to public papers, till the return of her health; and that no other change should be made in the forms.

The queen is disordered by religious melancholy; and Dr. Willis has been called to cure another sovereign: a singular phenomenon in history!

P R U S S I A.

The Prussian monarch has made preparations, and will doubtless assist the king of Hungary in the war against France.

G E R -

GERMANY.

Most of the late transactions of this empire, as relating to the affairs of France, are reserved for a latter article, under which they will appear more clear and connected. After much irresolution the late emperor seemed at length resolved on war, when he died of a pleuretic fever on the first of March, after an illness of four days. One of the last actions of his reign was a declaration against the freedom of the press, restricting all works on government to a large size, that they might be confined to a few readers.

It is little doubted that his son Francis, now king of Hungary and Bohemia, will be chosen emperor at the election in the beginning of July. Meanwhile the politics of the court of Vienna continue unchanged ; and Francis seems even a more violent enemy to the French revolution than his father. Attached to his uncle's example, he is fond of war ; but his constitution is said to be weak, and his abilities have not been tried.

AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

These fair provinces are little satisfied with the Austrian government, but are kept in awe by a numerous soldiery. The aristocracy, jealous of the people whose rights they trampled on during the late insurrection, are beginning at length to conciliate measures with the sovereign. Some politicians think it probable that the advance of a French army may occasion a commotion of the people.

FRANCE.

The dubious and undecided conduct of the emperor, and the refuge and protection found in the German empire by the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous resolutions ; and the celebrated manifesto, addressed to all states and nations, made its appearance. In this production, which does honour to the pen of M. Condorcet, the motives are detailed which induce France to hostilities, not offensive, in violation of her recent constitution, as some superficial observers might infer, but in mere and necessary defence against the unbearable insults, and warlike preparations, of the refugees in the adjacent countries of Germany ; insults which, if passed in silence, might have degraded the new order of affairs in the eyes even of the French nation ; and preparations, which requiring continuous exertions and expenditure to guard against, occasioned all the inconveniences of war. It was to be apprehended that sus-

pence

pence might have given rise to timidity, and distrust ; and in the disputes of nations the most vigorous defence is exerted in striking the first blow.

The forcible measures pursued had the effect of intimidating the German princes ; and the emigrants were constrained to an ignominious dispersion from the frontiers. But the protection of the emperor, and of the Prussian king, afforded them asylums more remote and less obtrusive.

Irresolution seemed to preside in the councils of the emperor, a monarch more eminent for the mild virtues of peace than for the exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag, he had declared that he regarded the king of France as absolutely free, while the league of Pilnitz, (which, as is now avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to secure Germany from such a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguish the dreaded source) and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a friend.

In this state of affairs the assembly deliberated on the report of the diplomatic committee, which tended to prove that France had nothing to dread from the league which was formed. The emperor's conduct was represented as only calculated to intimidate France into a consent to a congress, which should revive her constitution, or rather destroy it. From a war he could gain nothing, but must weaken his military strength, and exhaust his treasury. The alliance with the house of Austria was reproached ; and it was asserted that, since the treaty of 1756, France had made many sacrifices in support of that house, sacrifices repaid by the present insults. The emperor had protected the emigrants ; had formed a league against France ; had sent circular letters to the European powers, persuading them to unite against the attempts of reason and liberty.

Among the numerous important consequences of the French revolution, must be placed the total change of European politics, to which it has led. Previous to this singular event there was what is called a balance of power ; and to preserve this, if two or more states formed an alliance, an opposite league was sure to appear. At present there seems a general alliance in Europe against one nation. The scheme of politics has become so new, that the routine of cabinets and ministers affords no precedents. If the inimical powers were to dismember France, and the more enterprising to have the largest share, what would become of the balance of power, and of the liberties of Europe, those pretexts of constant wars for three centuries ? The passions of kings must render them inimical to this revolution ; but what country can have a real interest in

opposing it? What would be our feelings if the European monarchs were to guarantee the English constitution, and to declare that no improvements should be made? Yet this last event is not improbable, among the wonders which have followed the French revolution, which has been succeeded by singularities in most countries: in England it has caused a reconciliation between the stock and branches of the royal family; in the Austrian Netherlands it has forced the hierarchy and aristocracy to an agreement with the sovereign against the people.

The national assembly, though inclined to war, permitted a further trial of negotiation; but decreed that the emigrant princes should have no claim to the regency, as the time allotted for their return was expired. Soon after the king was required to notify to the emperor, that if he did not declare before the first day of May, his intention to live in amity with the French nation, and to renounce all treaties against its independence and safety, his silence should be interpreted as a declaration of war.

Fresh and ungrounded suspicions were raised that the king meditated a second flight; but Louis quieted these apprehensions by the most solemn assurances of his attachment to the constitution.

Towards the middle of February, the imperial ambassador at Paris delivered an answer from his court to the French requisition. It bore that the orders sent to general Bender, to prepare for war, were only intended to defend the electorate of Treves, if invaded: that it was true that the treaty of Pilnitz obliged the emperor and the Prussian monarch to support the cause of Louis against his rebellious oppressors, but that his avengers were disarmed by his being left at perfect freedom. Many expressions were added, full of the old Austrian pride, reflecting on the French nation as rebels, and pointing out the republicans and jacobins as objects of horror. In short, the papal bulls against the doctrines of the reformed seem to have afforded the model for this singular rescript, so unworthy of the moderation of a cabinet, or the dignity of a monarch.—The Prussian minister also sent a letter avowing the same principles.

While we thus freely censure the conduct of those powers who oppose the new system, it may be asserted that nothing debases the constitution of France more, in the eyes of indifferent spectators, than those clubs which interfere with the legislation and government; and those deities of the galleries in the senate, who are so ready to applaud or to condemn. The national assembly ought to be regarded

as the organ of the nation : clubs, which are commonly proofs of a minority, ought in all events to be sedulously kept in the back-ground, and even dispersed, if tending to obscure the dignity of the legislative body : the spectators of a senate ought to testify their respect by an invariable silence.

Under the present constitution of France, it is a most difficult province for a minister to retain the confidence of the king, and of the assembly. On the tenth of March Louis notified that M. de Grave had been nominated to the war-department, in the place of M. Narbonne. This nomination was followed by the impeachment of M. Delessart, the minister for foreign affairs. The chief articles against him were, that he had neglected his duty and betrayed the nation, in not producing to the assembly the papers proving a concert among other nations against France ; in delaying till the first of March any account of the official notice of the emperor, dated the fifth of January ; in meanly suing for peace, and giving prince Kaunitz improper information concerning the state of the kingdom.

The disorders of the realm were in the mean time far from being composed, nor could unanimous tranquillity be expected after so great, so recent, so sudden a change ; and while the sunshine of foreign peace continued to nourish every petty seed of faction. In the affair of Avignon the assembly shewed no eminent prudence from the beginning ; and it is now said that the aristocratical party have seized the castle, and maintain it against their opponents. Surely, as we before hinted, the assembly ought to pay particular attention to this acquisition, and curb its native fanaticism, by a competent garrison of national troops. The admission of Rochambeau and Luckner to the rank of marshals of France, while de la Fayette received not that honour ; the sudden unpopularity of the latter, grounded, as is said, upon his freely declaring his opinion that France ought to prefer peace to war, are circumstances not easily explicable.

The sudden death of the emperor, on the first of March, excited great consternation among the aristocrats, and afforded joy and exultation to the supporters of the constitution.

The assembly proceeded to the sequestration of the effects of the emigrants ; and it was decreed that the debts due to them should be paid into the chamber of sequestration ; that the produce of the sale of their goods by a creditor shall be paid into the chamber of the district, three months after the adjudication ;

and that the estates of the emigrants, who shall return within the month after the publication of this decree, shall be held by the nation, until the expences of the military preparations, occasioned by their emigration, shall be known, and the amount of their indemnity shall be regulated by this sum.

An answer from the king of Sardinia was read to the assembly, in which that prince asserts that he has given proofs of his wishes for peace, and expects a similar return; that his troops are beneath the peace-establishment; that he has sent no artillery into Savoy, but on the contrary the garrisons there have not their compliment: and he declares his resolution to maintain peace and good neighbourhood with the French nation, and that he considers any suspicion to the contrary as an injury.

The death of the Swedish king; on the 29th of March, was doubtless a fortunate event for the French revolution. Fresh spirits were diffused through the nation; and the superstitious vulgar imagined that they beheld the peculiar protection of heaven, in the removal of the two chief foes of France in one month.

Meanwhile that veteran and haughty statesman prince Kaunitz, ever remarkable for the pride of his measures, and for their failure, continued to hold the reins of government under the new king of Hungary. On the tenth of March he had returned an answer to the requisition of France; importing that the assembling of troops by his master and the German princes, was only to maintain the peace of their states, disturbed by the French example, and by the machinations of the jacobins; and that the league between the court of Vienna, and the most respectable powers of Europe, should be continued till the French nation paid more respect to kings.

In the progress of these negotiations, the young Hungarian king, excited by the influence of Prussia, began to exhibit more enmity and severer terms. At length, on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles, in his dispatches to the French minister for foreign affairs, explained the propositions of the court of Vienna, that satisfaction should be given to the German princes proprietors of Alsace, that Avignon should be restored to the pope, and that the internal government of France should be invested with such efficiency, that the other powers may have no apprehensions of being troubled by France. Those terms produced a declaration of war against Francis I. king of Hungary and Bohemia, decreed by the assembly, and ratified by the French king, on the 20th of April.

M. de Noailles, in his dispatches adds, that the Prussian en-

voy at Vienna has hastily departed for Berlin ; that requisitions have been sent to the circles of the empire for contingents in men and money ; and that Francis I. is inclined to distrust the king of Prussia, who presses him with eagerness to war.

Amid these important objects, we have omitted to mention that the assembly has issued a decree against the distinctions of the habits of ecclesiastical dignitaries : and that lord Gower, the English ambassador at Paris, has presented a conciliating note on the affair between a French and English frigate in the East Indies, apparently arising from faults on both sides, which it is to be expected will prevent any disagreement arising from this cause.

BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

The most important object, under this division, is the war now carrying on in the East Indies ; but having already, under the latter title, mentioned its progress, there is no occasion for any repetition here.

The chief articles in the marriage-treaty, between Prussia and England, have been laid before the public. The Prussian monarch gives to the princess a portion of 100,000 crowns. A formal renunciation is made, in favour of the male succession, of all right of inheritance arising from the house of Prussia and Brandenburgh, as usually done on the marriages of the Prussian princesses. The sum of 4000 l. sterling is annually assigned for pin-money and other expences ; and 8000 l. annually of jointure, in case of the death of her husband.

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS.

Many important affairs have been debated, but few decided, in the present session of parliament. The minister's popularity had been considerably injured by the injudicious preparations for a Russian war ; in which Europe was astonished to behold, for the first time, Britain acting in a subservient capacity to the narrow and interested politics of Prussia. It was easily perceivable that something must be done to appease the public clamour ; but the usual imprudent conduct of opposition furnished the minister with the surest defence.

In declaring our sentiments with the freedom of impartial spectators, unconnected with all parties, and influenced only by our earnest wishes for the public tranquillity and advantage, it is hoped that no reader will impute our occasional applause

of the minister to a blind confidence in his measures, or our occasional censure to any inclination towards the opposition. Whatever party be in office, the present, the opposition, or any other composed of both, or inimical to both, we consider it as the peculiar duty and special privilege of the press, to watch over the power of ministers, ever dangerous, whether they be monarchical, aristocratical, or democratical. By our happy constitution little can be apprehended from the royal prerogative; but every thing is to be feared from ministers, those temporary kings, whose power, not being hereditary, nor of any fixed duration, is frequently enlarged to excess, on purpose to secure itself. We would wish to see a philosophical enquiry into the origin, nature and tendency of this new species of magistracy, which in most European kingdoms forms an important branch of the government and constitution; and yet has never been considered by any political writer as even a member of government, while it is in fact the chief wheel of the machine. A comparison might be instituted between this high office and that of temporary magistrates in republics, of vizirs, and maires du palais; and even that of elective monarchs, particularly the popes, the singular government of which last it not a little resembles, in its duration upon a medium taken, and in other respects, especially in the sacred privilege, here called confidence in the minister, and at Rome infallibility.

Setting this aside, we believe that were Mr. Pitt out of office, it would not be easy to find a better minister to supply his place. Yet we applaud not the praises of our constitution, echoed by the minister, and even put into the royal mouth on the meeting of parliament: such praises are injudicious, and the voice of a happy people is in this case the only acclamation which ought to be heard.

To disperse the shades of unpopularity, the minister, instead of imposing more taxes to defray the expence of the Russian armament, as expected, liberally took off some small taxes which chiefly harrassed the poorer class of people. This might have been regarded as a mean compensation for committing the national honour to no purpose, and for a wanton waste of public money; and even as an avowal that many of our taxes were unnecessary, except to keep ministers in power by bribing our representatives, had not an infatuated opposition fallen headlong into the snare laid for them. Instead of silence, or insincere applause, the opposition seemed eager to secure the public hatred, by objecting to any diminution of taxes; and, on a future occasion, by a proposal to increase the allowance of the duke of York.—Happy is the minister who has such enemies!

In the debate on the Russian armament, a measure reprobated by the nation, it was contended that the British parliament may soon become a type of the parliament of Paris, and be only employed to register the edict of the minister.—A slight vote of censure indeed appeared proper; but though the ministry had, in this instance, been misled, yet their former merits were such, that the house had no reason to suppose the public opinion in their favour much changed, and therefore continued their support.—To overpower the charge by concealment of papers, and by mere majorities, was, however, rather odious, considering the progress of reason and liberty in the public mind. The charge against a certain member, for improper conduct in the Westminster election, was suppressed in a similar way; and the public wondered that darkness should have become absolutely necessary.

On the reduction of the army and navy, and the increase of pay to the former, we shall not comment. The trial of Mr. Hastings has proceeded slowly. The debates on the Indian war, another object of no popularity, were terminated in the usual way, by a majority.

The bill for an alteration in the choice and distribution of justices of the peace, in Westminster and other departments adjacent to London, seems a laudable measure. It has, however, been objected that the influence of the crown, that is of the minister for the time, must be thereby increased; and that the trading justices, with all their infamy, are necessary evils, as they are attended by men experienced in detecting criminals. Perhaps the latter magistrates might be allowed to retain their offices, for this purpose, while the new justices might determine more creditable matters.

The arrangement for the payment of the national debt, of which nine millions are already cleared, was revised and improved.

Mr. Fox's bill on libels flumbers in the house of lords, though more conciliation might have been expected.

The bill for the abolition of the slave-trade was at length carried; but a gradual abolition will, it is believed, be preferred. We wish that this measure may not prove injurious to our colonies, and to the empire: as philanthropists we applaud, but as politicians doubt. Little would be the advantage even to humanity, if in a century or two our colonies became the property of the African aborigines, a race who since the creation of the world have not produced one civilised nation, and in whose hands the field of industry would soon become a desert waste.—We adore the footsteps of providence in the

destruc-

destruction of barbarous nations, that civilised ones may supply their place, as we praise the hand that roots up weeds in order to sow grain: but when this order is reversed, there is occasion for poignant regret; and we are dubious which to prefer, the good sense of our ancestors, or our own sensibility.

The debates on the constitution of the Scottish burghs presented a singular scene.—Great numbers of the most respectable people in that country signed petitions for redress; yet the minister, the former friend of a parliamentary reform, did not support their claims; and the secretary, with his coadjutor, treated them with contempt.

Let it not be supposed from this, and our remarks on some other transactions of this session of parliament, that we mean to contribute in the smallest degree to the murmurs of dissatisfaction. If any man imagine himself a better friend to the public tranquillity, he errs. But that there are discontents it would be ridiculous to deny; and, in our opinion, small concessions and conciliations are absolutely necessary to the national peace. That obstinacy which excites opposition, that contempt which kindles rage, are dangerous weapons to wield at this enlightened period. In former ages it might be a prudent maxim to yield nothing, that nothing might be expected; but maxims must vary with times. If our parties be kept at such extreme distance, that the one seems to shelter itself under despotic power, and the other to fly to republicanism, the collision, if they encountered, must be dreadful. It is surely the duty of every friend to his country, to recommend some concessions on the part of power; temper and content to the other side; moderation to all. The Spartan king, who diminished his own power in order to render it more lasting, may be recommended as a model to rulers, who ought to treat those who offer reasonable requests as their friends and brothers, and not to excite accumulated vengeance by a stern refusal of the smallest concession, far less to obtrude upon the public patience by such unwise obduracy at a critical period.

In regard to the two other kingdoms of this empire, Ireland acquired so many advantages lately by a patriotic parliament, that she has every reason to be contented and happy: but Scotland, as we are concerned to observe from some periodical publications of that country, and to learn from intelligent natives, complains much of old fetters on her commerce and improvement, not yet removed, and of the marked neglect shewn to her interests. The despotism of last century, and two rebellions of a part of her people in this, rendered Scot-

land so tame, that she has long regarded any opposition to the minister, as an act of sedition carefully to be avoided, lest the memory of her rebels should recur. Now becoming more industrious and enlightened, she begins to know her real interests, and to apprise all the blessings of freedom.

The parliament of Ireland has extended liberal indulgences to the Roman catholics of that kingdom, by establishing the legality of intermarriage between them and the protestants, by admitting them to the profession of the law, and the benefit of education, and by removing all restrictions upon their industry in trade and manufacture. A reciprocal preference in the corn trade with Britain has been established. Further progress has been made in checking the immoderate use of spirituous liquors; and some wise institutions have been ordained for the regulation of charitable foundations.

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